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ABSTRACT

The nature of nonstandard dialects and the ways they may contribute to reading failure in the children who speak them are the focal points around which the books and articles in this annotated bibliography were compiled. Part one, "The Linguistically Different Learner," contains abstracts of items which deal primarily with language factors. This section is divided into subsections which focus on language development, dialectology, and instructional approaches to teaching standard English. Part two, "Teaching Reading to Linguistically Different Learners," contains items which deal with reading instruction. Subsections include resources on the relationship of language to the reading process and on instructional approaches and materials for teaching reading to dialect speakers. An index of authors completes the volume. (KS)

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Hutcheson, Pat Penn

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT AND READING:

PERSPECTIVES ON THE LINGUISTICALLY DIFFERENT LEARNER

AN ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

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INTRODUCTION

In spite of the tremendous amount of money poured into educational programs for disadvantaged children during the "Great Society" years, the fact remains that up to one half of the students in large city school systems still read below expectation.[1] In addition to reading failure and poverty, many of these students have another attribute in common--they speak a dialect which differs from the "standard" English spoken by most middle-class Americans. The nature of nonstandard dialects and how they may contribute to the reading failure of the children who speak them are two of the focal points around which the books and articles in this bibliography were compiled. In addition, items were sought out which deal with the relationship of language to cognitive development and with the relationship of language to the reading process. An examination of these areas was deemed necessary in order to better understand some of the problems and controversies which surround educators striving to develop better reading and language programs for linguistically different learners. Finally, items were selected

[1] J.E. Allen, "The Right to Read--Target for the 70's," Paper read at the 1969 annual convention of the National Association of State Boards of Education, Los Angeles, September 23, 1969, quoted in Mildred H. Wood, "An Analysis of Beginning Reading Programs for the Disadvantaged," Viewpoints, 46(May 1970), 150.

which describe current programs or suggest new approaches and materials for teaching reading and standard English to these students.

Books and articles which deal primarily with bilingual students were excluded from this compilation. Thus, the term "linguistically different," as it is used here, refers to speakers of nonstandard dialects rather than to speakers of another language. A number of items define the population under consideration as "culturally deprived" or "socially disadvantaged" children. In some cases it is clear that these children are also nonstandard dialect speakers; in other cases it is not. Even when the distinction is not clear, the item is included if the results or suggestions seem pertinent to the education of linguistically different children.

The intent was to select the most current books and articles and to present them objectively, refraining from comment. For the convenience of the reader, this bibliography is divided into two parts. Part I,"The Linguistically Different Learner," contains the items which deal primarily with language factors and is divided into sections which focus on language development, dialectology, and instructional approaches to teaching standard English. Part II, "Teaching Reading to Linguistically Different Learners," contains the items which deal primarily with reading instruction and is divided into sections which focus on the relationship of language to the reading process, and instructional approaches and materials for teaching reading to dialect speakers.

In a number of cases, the assignment of an item to a certain section was somewhat arbitrary. For instance, an article which describes a nonstandard dialect might also discuss its implications for reading teachers and, thus, could go either in the dialectology section of the first part or the instructional approaches section of the second part. Nevertheless, some organizational pattern was considered necessary and it is hoped that this particular one will aid the reader in locating the items which are most relevant to his specific interests.

Part I: The Linguistically Different Learner

That the speech of a nonstandard dialect speaker is quite different from the speech of a standard English speaker is an obvious fact. Exactly how it differs is not as obvious, but linguists have made progress in describing the ways in which the phonemes, lexical items, and syntax of the Negro nonstandard dialect, in particular, differ from the standard mode of speech. Some of their observations concerning this dialect are presented in the "Dialectology" section. There is one important point of agreement among them, however, which might be mentioned here: this dialect is not an inferior copy of standard English, but rather a systematic and rule governed mode of speech. The children who speak this dialect, they argue, are not linguistically deprived; they are linguistically different. There is no such agreement among educators on this point. Many of them believe that Negro nonstandard speakers are, indeed, linguistically deprived and that their restricted dialect is inadequate for cognitive development. Both points of view,as well as some that fall somewhere between these two extrmemes, are represented in the "Language Development and Cognitive Abilities" section. Whether they believe that the Negro nonstandard dialect is a deficient or merely a different mode of speech, most linguists and educators believe that dialect speakers should be given the

opportunity to learn standard English. When this instruction should begin, how it should be conducted, and what the instructional content should be are, once again, controversial issues. The section entitled "Language Programs for Linguistically Different Children" contains items representing various points of view on how language programs should be conducted and also includes items which describe some of the existing language programs and the results they have achieved.

Section A: Language Development and Cognitive Abilities

This section contains summaries of a number of studies which were conducted for the purpose of identifying the role that language plays in the acquisition of various cognitive skills such as labeling, forming concepts, discriminating sounds in words, etc. Many of the authors of these articles believe that nonstandard English speaking children are handicapped in their acquisition of such skills because they have not developed certain language skills. Other articles focus on the testing environment and testing instruments used in such studies. The authors attempt to illustrate that the environment and instruments may be so unsuited to the disadvantaged child and the dialect he speaks that the results obtained are likely to be unreliable. Finally, theoretical articles are presented which question the wisdom of drawing any conclusions about the nonstandard dialect or any other mode of speech until more studies have been conducted on the relationship of language to the social context in which it is used.

Bernstein, Basil. "A Sociolinguistic Approach to Socialization: With Some Reference to Educability," in Frederick Williams (Ed.), Language and Poverty: Perspectives on a Theme. Chicago: Markham Publishing Co., 1970, 25-61.

In this article, Bernstein explains the social origins of elaborated and restricted language codes, and discusses some of the implications for educating speakers of restricted codes. He says that a restricted language code is characterized by a rigidity of syntax and restricted use of structural possibilities for sentence organization. It is highly reliant upon the context for meaning and, thus, others can fully understand the restricted code user's meaning only if they have access to the context which originally generated the speech. The elaborated code, on the other hand, is characterized by a diversity of syntactic patterns and vocabulary. It is less bound to a given context and, thus, can be understood by listeners who do not share the context which generated the speech.

Bernstein claims that many psychologists and educators have mistakenly equated his concept of a restricted language code with linguistic deprivation. This erroneous conclusion has come about, he says, because they focused entirely on the spoken details of the language codes rather than examining the basic structures of the culture or subculture which the codes manifest.

He believes that different linguistic codes arise because various social classes have different occupational roles and value systems which, in turn, dictate the enactment of different

social roles. Modes of communication reflect the requirements of the social structure. Thus, a restricted code user's speech reflects a relatively communally based culture, and the needs of this culture do not demand a highly specific, elaborated form of speech. The child learns to speak in the environment of the family, and family role systems and modes of control once again, reflect the requirements and attitudes of the family's social class or subculture.

Bernstein believes that the values, social organization, and forms of control and pedagogy offered by most schools do not reflect an understanding of the lower class child's culture--they reflect the culture, needs, and strengths of the middle-class child. The attention of educators becomes focused on the language differences of lower and middle-class children, but these language differences are merely the most obvious manifestations of the cultural differences. This results in little learning being expected of the lower-class child and, consequently, very little being taught to him. The author says that it is not necessary to teach the child formal grammar or to interfere with his dialect in order to teach him; there is nothing in his dialect which prevents him from learning. It is, however, necessary to change the schools and educate teachers to better meet the needs of the dialect speaking child. The contexts of learning--the methods, materials, etc.--must draw on the child's experiences in his family and community, and not require him (as they presently do) to drop his social identity upon arrival at school.

Cazden, Courtney B. "The Neglected Situation in Child Language Research and Education," in Frederick Williams (Ed.), Language and Poverty:Perspectives on a Theme. Chicago: Markham Publishing Co., 1970, 81-101.

Cazden claims that neither the "deficit theory" nor the "difference theory" adequately explains the language problems that disadvantaged children are widely reported to have. Both theories, she says, speak only of patterns of structural forms and ignore patterns of use in actual speech events, and both theories fail to take account of the way a child's speech changes according to the social situation. Noting that Dell Hymes uses the term "communicative competence" to describe a child's ability to vary his speech according to the social situation, Cazden points out that relatively little research has been conducted to determine the range of children's communicative competence and how they develop it. She devotes a large portion of this article to a review of the studies that have dealt with communicative competence. These studies seem to indicate that certain aspects of the social situation, such as the topic of discussion, task to be performed, rapport of listener, etc., have a very important bearing on the child's fluency of speech, length and complexity of sentences, language style, etc. Thus, Cazden argues, the data collected from testing children from various social classes in one testing situation do not constitute enough information to adequately explain their language differences.

Even if we thoroughly understand communicative competence among children of various social classes, we would still be far

from a theory of oral language education. Cazden points out that there is reason to believe that sociolinguistic interference from contrasting communicative demands both in and outside of school is more important than grammatical interference. What is more, cultural differences in language can be viewed as deficiencies when children confront the demands of particular communicative situations. Thus, educators as well as spokesmen for the child and his community must make value judgments as to what uses of language the schools will attempt to teach.

Clark, Ann D. and Charlotte J. Richards. "Auditory Discrimination Among Economically Disadvantaged and Nondisadvantaged Preschool Children," Exceptional Children, 33, 1966, 259-262.

The authors adhere to Deutsch's theory that the economically disadvantaged are deficient in language development and possess poor auditory discrimination. This study is an attempt to document that theory, and to determine whether there are sex differences in auditory discrimination.

Fifty-eight children enrolled in a Headstart program were chosen for the study. Twenty-nine were classified as economically disadvantaged and 29 as economically nondisadvantaged. Analysis of covariance was used to remove the effects of I.Q. and chronological age. The racial distribution in the two groups was equivalent. The Wepman Auditory Discrimination Test was administered to both groups. This test requires subjects to respond "same" or "different" to 100 pairs of words presented orally in three subtests.

The nondisadvantaged children made significantly fewer

errors than the disadvantaged children (p .001) on the test as a whole, and the same was true for each of the subtests. A median test on the error scores showed no relationship between sex and errors (chi square = 1.24, p .50).

The authors concluded that preschool disadvantaged children do exhibit significant deficiencies in auditory discrimination. They suggest that auditory discrimination assessment and training be included in the educational programs for the disadvantaged. They also suggest further research to determine when the deficit first becomes apparent so that preventative, rather than remedial, help can be given.

Cohen, S. Alan and Gita S. Kornfeld. "Oral Vocabulary and Beginning Reading in Disadvantaged Black Children," The Reading Teacher, 24 (October 1970), 33-38.

Cohen and Kornfeld concede that black children have smaller vocabularies and less experience in labeling and categorizing than middle class children. They argue, however, that this vocabulary deficiency is not great enough to account for reading retardation in the primary grades.

The authors note that D.R. Thomas' study (1962) dealing with the oral vocabulary of low SES urban kindergarten children is frequently quoted. This study, however, underestimates the children's vocabulary size as a result of several biasing factors: (1) a possibly unfavorable social context during the interview situation (2) short duration of interviews (3) a confusion of conceptual vocabulary with articulation, e.g., the word "walked" was considered unknown to the child if he only used the word

"walk". Cohen and Kornfeld revised the Thomas vocabulary list for disadvantaged children solely by eliminating inflected forms from the unknown list when the noninflected forms appeared on the known list. This process reduced the unknown list from 38.9% to 21.2% in five non-urban first grade readers, from 15% to 11.1% in a basic work list from basals, from 31% to 12% in the Bank Street Readers and from 31.3% to 16.3% in the Chandler Readers.

The authors conclude that because they did nothing to correct for the biasing effects of the first two factors, their corrected results still represent the most conservative measure of conceptual vocabulary. Reading failure among disadvantaged urban children, they claim, cannot be attributed to a lack of vocabulary.

Deutsch, Martin. "The Role of Social Class in Language Development and Cognition," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 35 (January 1965), 78-88.

In this study, Deutsch attempted to identify the perceptual, linguistic, and conceptual patterns of disadvantaged children which set them apart from their more advantaged classmates. Two hundred and ninety-two first and fifth grade children from various racial groups and social classes comprised the population in this study. Various tests, designed to measure over 100 variables concerned with home background , language functioning, conceptual behavior, sub-components of language, etc., were administered to the children. The present article does not report on all the data obtained from these tests, but focuses on 42 variables related to cognative functions; especially, language variables. The performance of both age groups on the

42 tasks are correlated with race and with SES. In the first grade sample, only six variables correlated with race alone, nineteen correlated with SES alone, and two with both. Of 43 scores for the fifth grade sample, six correlated with race alone, 10 with SES alone, and 12 with both. Thus, correlations with race were found in eight variables for the first grade group and in 18 for the fifth grade group. Deutsch observed that among the variables in which poorer performance was related to race, the functions underlying the tasks were related to abstraction, verbalization, and experientially dependent enumeration. However, not all measures relecting these functions were related to race.

Deutsch believe that his findings are significant in that they conform to the cumulative deficit hypothesis. He concludes that poor home environment plus minority group status results in children who are apparently less capable of handling intellectual and linguistic tasks. Schooling, he believes, possibly adds to the problem by making the child more aware of this inferior caste status. The child is also aware of his "grammatical ineptness," says Deutsch, and therefore, is reluctant to communicate when in school. Because verbal communication breaks down, the child's opportunities to learn are restricted. Deutsch suggests that the schools' remedial and enrichment programs follow developmental stages, and that curriculum changes be introduced at the earliest possible time in order to arrest the cumulative deficit.

Erickson, Frederick David. "F'get You Honky!": A New Look at Black Dialect and the School," Elementary English, 46, 495-517.

The Bernstein hypothesis states that lower-class speakers use a "restricted" linguistic code in that the meaning of a word or phrase is not specific, but determined by the social context. The "elaborated" code of the middle class, on the other hand, does not rely on the social context for meaning because words tend to be more specific and sentences more precisely constructed. This view of language implies a direct relationship between social class and language style.

In the present article, Erickson suggests that there is an intervening factor between social class and language style. He refers to this factor as "the shared context principle." This principle holds that when speakers share the same background and point of view, a restricted code can function as precisely as an elaborated code. Thus, the more the speakers have in common, the more economical the speech can become and not suffer a loss in meaning. The author's exploratory study of language styles of lower-class Negroes and middle-class Caucasians lends credence to this theory. He found that both lower-class and middle-class subjects shifted back and forth between relatively restricted and relatively elaborated codes, depending on the context. While the codes were related to social class in the way Bernstein suggested, neither group seemed bound to one language style exclusively. The author also observed that extremely abstract concepts were being communicated in the restricted code.

This study, says Erickson, contains several implications

for teaching black dialect speakers: (1) the term "linguistic deprivation" should not be used categorically; black dialect can be used to communicate complex ideas provided the teacher shares the context of the speakers (2) teachers must become sensitive to the context principle and allow children to use the code that is appropriate to the situation (3) there is a need for teachers as well as others, to understand that "elaborated code" and "standard English" are not synonymous; standard English speakers, though they use standard grammar, usually do not speak in the elaborated code that is used for written standard English (4) the restricted code can be very efficient and effective when used in an appropriate setting.

John, Vera P. "The Intellectual Development of Slum Children: Some preliminary Findings," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 33 (October 1963), 813-822

This study focuses on three aspects of the intellectual development of Negro children from various social classes: labeling, relating, and categorizing. The author used 174 Negro children from three social classes as subjects (Class I=lower-lower class, Class II= upper-lower class, and Class III= middle-class). Sixty-nine children were first graders and 105 were fifth graders. Three hypotheses were tested: (1) lower-class and middle-class children would differ little in labeling tasks that required only enumerating, but they would manifest class differences in labeling tasks that required integrating, i.e., titling the pictures (2) middle-class children would be more skillful in relating their responses to stimulus words, i.e.,

there would be more grammatical similarity between the stimulus words and their responses (3) lower-class children would classify test stimuli according to functional criteria rather than logically consistent categories.

The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT), WISC Vocabulary Test, and the Verbal identification Test (developed by the author) were used to test labeling behavior. There were no statistically significant differences in the descriptive (enumerating) or integrative behavior among first-grade children. Among fifth graders, however, Class III children did significantly better (p.05) than Class I and II children on the WISC Vocabulary Test (P.025). The PPVT was not given to this group.

On the Word Association Test, used to test the second hypthesis, no significant differences were found among social classes at either first or fifth grade level.

The Concept Sorting Test, used to test the third hypothesis was given to only half the children in each group. Among the first graders no statistically significant differences were obtained. The middle-class fifth graders, however, did significantly better than the lower-class fifth graders on this test (p.05). They sorted their cards into fewer piles and gave more explicit explanations of the basis of their sorting.

John concludes from these findings that the home environment of the lower class child hampers him in the acquisition of

abstract and integrative language. That significant differences in performance emerged at the fifth rather that the first grade level, John believes is due to the fact that all young children (regardless of social class) are primarily occupied with acquiring basic language skills.

Labov, William. "The logic of Nonstandard English, "in James E. Alatis (Ed.), Report of the 20th Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Studies. Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press, 1970, 1-43.

In this article, Labov quotes transcripts from interviews with NSE speakers to support his belief that the Negro nonstandard dialect is totally adequate for conveying logical, complex, and abstract ideas. He makes no apology for the fact that his beliefs are not backed up with evidence from controlled experiments. In fact, he contends that Bereiter and Engelmann, Jensen, and a host of others who have furnished data which have supported the verbal deficiency theory have mistakenly believed that one can control for language responses by controlling the stimulus questions. Labov argues that the social situation is the most powerful determinant of linguistic behavior. The testing situation, like the classroom situation, is likely to represent a hostile and threatening environment to the NSE speaking child. He consequently reacts in a defensive manner by making minimal responses to the questions asked him. The interviewer or teacher comes away from the situation convinced that the child lacks language ability and perhaps intelligence as well. Labov furnishes a transcript that dramatically illustrates how a

"nonverbal" child became quite verbal when the interview situation was changed to a more relaxed, party-like situation.

The author says that compensatory programs designed to teach "language" to the dialect speaking child are based on the mistaken belief that the nonstandard dialect is inadequate for carrying on verbal reasoning. This belief has arisen because teachers and psychologist have confused surface form and explictiness with logic, e.g., assuming that the NSE form "I don't want none" logically means that the child is saying "I want one." Labov acknowleges that NSE speaking children need help in analysing surface form and being more explicit. It is the school programs, however, rather that the child, which must change in order to make this help possible. Teachers and others must recognize the fact that NSE is a systematic form of speech which serves the needs of its speakers adequately. The author claims that it may not be desirable to indiscriminately teach all middle-class verbal habits to the NSE speaker; many standard English forms are merely stylistic or even dysfunctional.

McConnell, Freeman and Joe B. Robertson. "Auditory Perceptual Skills of Culturally Disadvantaged Children," in Hala, Romportl, and Janota (Eds.), Proceedings of the Sixth International Congress of Phonetic Sciences. Prague: Academia, 1970, 625-629.

The authors tested three groups of 15 children each (culturally disvantaged, Caucasian) in order to determine whether social class differences or ethnic differences would be found in the results of three tests of auditory abilities. The tests

used were: (1) Auditory Word Memory Test--requires child to retain a series of words in sequence (2) Auditory Blending--requires child to synthesize words when their individual phonemes are presented in order, but with a time delay betweenthe phonemes (3) a speech sound discrimination test--requires child to discriminate identical and different word pairs.

Results showed that both culturally advantaged groups did significantly better than the culturally disadvantaged group on all three tests ($p<.05$). The two middle-class groups did not differ significantly from one another on the Auditory Word Memory Test or the speech sound discrimination test. On the Auditory Blending, however, the advantaged Negro group fell below the Caucasian group. The mean scores of the advantaged Negro group on this test fell exactly halfway between the disadvantaged Negro group and the advantaged Caucasian group.

The authors conclude that theadvantaged groups' superiority on these tests was most likely due to a more structured home environment that was more conducive to developing auditory perceptual skills.

Prehm, Herbert J. "Concept Learning in Culturally Disadvantaged Children As a Function of Verbal Pretraining," Exceptional Children, 32 (May 1966), 599-604.

The purpose of this study was to determine whether verbal pretraining would effect performance on a concept acquisition task and whether the effects of the pretraining would carry over to another concept acquisition task on which the subjects had not received pretraining.

Subjects included 27 higher risk (mean I.Q. of children in family was 83 or less) and 27 lower risk (mean I.Q. of children in family was 84 or above) culturally disadvantaged children ranging in age from four to seven years. Nine subjects in each risk group were randomly assigned to one of three pretraining groups: verbal label, attention or control. All groups were given cards to sort into piles according to various concepts (e.g., shape or number of lines on cards, etc.), but the verbal label group was told the name of each card and asked to repeat the name as it was sorted, while the attention group merely sorted the cards according to the relevant criteria, and the control group sorted them unsystematically. After this pretraining session, subjects were immediately presented with the first transfer task using the same stimulus materials used in pretraining. They were then presented with the second transfer task using materials to be sorted according to different dimensions with no pretraining.

Results revealed no significant differences between higher and lower risk subjects in performance, but the effect of pretraining was statistically significant on both tasks ($p<.001$). The verbal label group attained the concepts in significantly fewer trials than the attention and control groups ($p<.025$), and the attention group attained them in fewer trials than the control group ($p<.025$). Prehm concludes that both attention to the pertinent aspects of a stimulus situation and verbalization have a positive effect on the conceptual performance of disadvantaged children.

Riesman, Frank. "The Overlooked Positives of Disadvantaged Groups," The Journal of Negro Education, 33, 1964, 225-231.

Riesman focuses on some of the strong points that frequently characterize the cognitive style of many disadvantaged individuals. He notes that the premium placed on speed in our culture results in teachers equating a fast thinking and working style with "bright" and slow thinking and working styles with "dull." He points out that a pupil may be slow because he is extremely careful, because he refuses to jump to conclusions, or because he needs to manually manipulate something connected to a task in order to understand it. He concludes that there is no reason to assume that there are not a great many slow, but gifted and creative, children.

Riesman says that teachers seldom recognize the verbal strengths of disadvantaged children because they expect them to be nonverbal and don't attempt to alter the classroom situation or activities in a way that would be conducive to eliciting uninhibited language performance. Also, while it may be true that disadvantaged children do not possess as elaborated a language style as middle-class children, there is no reason to assume that their language cannot be enriched or that it is not adequate for learning.

He also cites parents' positive attitude toward education, cooperativeness and mutual aid of the extended family, lack of parental over protection, humor, freedom from being word bound, a problem-centered rather than abstract-centered mental style and a physical and visual learning style as strengths of these children that can be drawn upon in the education process.

Shriner, Thomas H. and Lynn Miner. "Morphological Structures in the Language of Disadvantaged and Advantaged Children," Journal of Speech and Hearing Research, 11 (September 1968), 605-610.

This article reports the results of a study in which two groups of preschool children were tested for their ability to apply morphological rules to unfamiliar situations. Subjects included 50 children, 25 advantaged and 25 disadvantaged. Subjects in the advantaged group were matches to subjects in the disadvantaged group on the basis of sex and mental age. Chronological age ranged from 3 years, 5 months to 5 years, 8 months. with a mean age of 4 years, 8 months. Average I.Q. (determined by PPVT) of the advantaged children was 89.3 compared to 89.7 for the disadvantaged children. One part of the test consisted of 20 items designed to assess the child's expressive knowledge of noun pluralizations, verb forms, and possessives; the other part consisted of 10 items designed to test receptive knowledge of noun pluralizations. The child was required to generate the correct form of a nonsense word pictured on a stimulus card or to point to the picture which illustrated a stimulus nonsense word (e.g., "This is a gleep. Now there are two _____.").

A comparison of scores of the two groups revealed no statistically significant differences. Both groups became more adept at applying the morphological rules as mental age increased. Chronological age was the only variable considered relevant which was not controlled. The authors, therefore, evaluated the effect of the difference between the average chronological ages of the two groups, but the resulting t-ratio was nonsignificant.

Within-group and between-group comparisons were made to test for differences in sex, subtest items, and receptive vs. expressive abilities; none of the resulting t-ratios approached significance at the .05 level.

The authors conclude that there was no difference in the advantaged and disadvantaged group's ability to apply morphological competence to unfamiliar situations, and suggest that the terms "culturally advantaged" and "culturally disadvantaged" may be misnomers when relevant variables are controlled.

Sigel, Irving and Cereta Perry. "Psycholinguistic Diversity Among 'Culturally Deprived' Children," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 38 (January 1968), 122-126.

Sigel and Perry argue that, contrary to what most educators seem to believe, "culturally deprived" children do not constitute a homogeneous classificatory group. This study attempted to document this belief.

Twenty-five Negro preschoolers ranging from three to six years of age were tested on the Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities (ITPA). These children were all enrolled in a nursery school program located in a "culturally deprived" area.

The distribution of scores on the nine subtests is given, and then compared to an ITPA standardization sample. While the study group's mean scores on all subtests except auditory vocal sequencing and auditory decoding were lower than the national sample, the variability of scores was much greater for the study sample. The standard deviation was more than 50% of the mean in most of the subtests for the study group, whereas the standard

deviation was never once more than 50% of the mean in the standardization sample. The authors also repost a considerable within-child variability, though individual scores are not given in this article. They also report that test-related behavior, such as spontaneous conversations, questions, etc.,demonstrated even further linguistic diversity among these children.

The authors conclude that the diversity of language ability among these children make such labels as "culturally deprived" not only useless, but harmful. When classificatory labels are necessary, they should reflect realistic, diagnostically valuable typologies.

Smith, Herbert W. and Theodore May. "Influence of the Examiner on the ITPA Scores of Negro Children," Psychological Reports, 20, 499-502.

Smith and May used six examiners whose race, sex and testing experience varied to test 171 low SES Negro children in order to determine whether examiner variability influenced the children's performance. The over-all language score and five subtests reflected significant examiner differences. Negro examiners consistently elicited higher scores, but only one subtest revealed two clearly separate patterns related to the examiner's race.

The authors conclude that the extent of variability among relatively untrained examiners suggests that any normative information on the ITPA should contain detailed information concerning the experience and training of examiners. More studies are needed to identify the sources of this variation.

Weaver, Joseph and Ann Weaver. "Psycholinguistic Abilities of Culturally Deprived Negro Children," American Journal of Mental Deficiency, 72 (September 1967), 190-197.

The authors' purpose in this study was to investigate the language patterns of culturally deprived Negro children. They cite prior studies which indicate that educable and trainable mentally retarded children, when tested on the ITPS, exhibit a language pattern that is different from the normal population. The authors predicted that culturally deprived children would exhibit a language pattern similar to that of retarded children when tested on the ITPA in that their scores on auditory and vocal channels would be significantly lower than scores on visual and motor channels, their total ITPA scores, and their language age scores would be signifiantly lower than their mental ages.

The subjects were selected from the Early Training for Culturally Deprived Children project (Gray and Klaus, 1965). Three groups were formed: 22 children trained for two summers (T1); 21 children trained for one summer (T2); and 18 children constituting the control group. The ITPA was administered to the three groups.

The language patterns, as represented by the subtest scores, of all three groups were highly similar. An analysis of variance revealed significant differences between groups on only three subtests: on visual decoding, T1 and T2 scored higher than T3; on auditory vocal T1 and T2 also scored higher than T3;

and on visual motor sequencing, T2 scored higher than T1 and T3. An analysis of the ITPA total scores indicated that the T1 and T2 groups had done significantly better than the T3 group.

When the subtests were categorized by channels, the authors' hypothesis that auditory and vocal scores would be significantly lower than visual and motor scores was upheld. The scores indicated that culturally deprived children utilize the following channels in descending order: visual, motor, vocal, auditory. The hypothesis that culturally deprived subjects would earn language ages significantly lower than their mental ages was upheld ($p<.001$). The hypothesis that the scores on the vocal encoding subtest would be lower than their total ITPA scores was not upheld. Thus, the language patterns of culturally deprived children were similar to those of mentally retarded children in the relationship of auditory and vocal scores to visual and motor scores, and in language score to mental age, but not in vocal encoding score to total ITPA score.

Williams, Frederick and Rita Naremore. "On the Functional Analysis of Social Class Differences in Modes of Speech," Speech Monographs, 36 (June 1969), 77-102.

In this study Williams and Naremore attempt to obtain empirical evidence that will shed light on Bernstein's theory of restricted and elaborated language codes. While previous studies of this nature focused on social class differences in speech in terms of lexical and grammatical details, the present study focuses on what demands are made upon the speaker in a particular communication situation and how the speakers from

two social classes utilize their language to cope with that situation.

Language samples were obtained from the Detroit Dialect Study (Shuy, Wolfram and Riley) tapes. The authors chose 20 tapes of children from parents of a relatively high social class and 20 from children of parents of a relatively low social class. Each group had an equal number of boys and girls, Negroes and whites. On the tapes, the interviewers had discussed three topics with the children--games, TV, and job aspirations. The interviewers' questions (referred to as "probe-constraints") were of three varieties: (1) simple--could be answered with yes or no (2) naming--could minimally be answered by providing a name or list of names (3) elaboration--required an explanation, description, or some kind of story-telling by the child. The authors devised methods of classifying the language used by the children in their responses in functionally-oriented terms. They accounted for syntax, response -style (whether the response was simple, naming, etc.), grammatical-perspective (the referential focus used, i.e. self-singular, generalized you, etc.), and response organization (the degree to which parts of the response related to the rest of it) in these classifications.

The results are reported for each social class under each of the categories which the authors set up. A further breakdown gives information on how responses differed according to sex and race. Some of the more important findings are as follows. The probe constraint had a significant influence on the response

styles of both social classes. While the lower-class children generally had more of a tendency to supply minimally acceptable responses to simple and naming probe constraints, there was no significant difference between the response style of the two groups under the elaboration constraint. In the grammatical perspective category, the lower-class children generally made more use of the self-singular perspective, while the higher class children generally made more use of the third person. This pattern was found in the games and aspiration topics, but both groups tended to respond to the TV topic in the third person. An analysis of response organization again revealed topic related differences as will as SES related differences. The higher status group had significantly higher organizational indices in the overall comparison and on the TV related responses, but there was no significant difference on the games or aspirations topic. The analysis of data also revealed that lower class children made significantly more request interjections than upper-class children, i.e., more often asked the interviewer to clarify the question or kind of response he wanted.

The authors conclude that while the lower status children tended to reflect a more context-centered style of speech and the higher status children a more topic-centered style, it is important to note that all children met the communicative demands of the situation. The contrast in the data was provided by the higher status child's willingness to go beyond what was minimally demanded in the situation. They present their own outline of

modes of speech which modifies Bernstein's, and also takes into account the function of speech in various communication situations.

Section B: Dialectology

Although several detailed descriptive studies of the Negro nonstandard dialect have been done, they are not presented here because it was thought that an isolated report of the distinguishing features of this dialect (or any other) would be of little help to the educator who lacks a background in linguistics. Instead, most of the articles included in this section are of a more general nature. They should prove helpful in giving the reader some understanding of the types of problems that nonstandard speakers face in our educational system. They should also give the reader a better understanding of the nature of dialect research and its relationship to the development of better instructional programs.

Baratz, Joan. "A Bi-Dialectal Task for Determining Language Proficiency in Economically Disadvantaged Negro Children," Child Development, 40 (1969), 889-901.

The author compared the ability of standard and nonstandard speakers to repeat standard and nonstandard sentences in order to test the hypothesis that the Negro nonstandard dialect differs from standard English in a regular, well-ordered way. Negro third and fifth graders from a Washington, D.C. inner city school and Caucasian third and fifth graders from a Washington suburban school were asked to repeat each of 30 tape recorded sentences after hearing it twice. Fifteen sentences were in NSE and 15 were in standard English.

The data were analysed to determine how certain standard and nonstandard grammatical structures were handled by the speakers of each race and grade. Analysis of variance on the standard sentences showed that the white subjects performed significantly better than the Negro subjects on repeating them($p<.001$). Significant differences in performance within subjects were obtained on grammatical features ($p<.001$), the interaction of race and grammatical features($p<.001$), and the interaction of age and grammatical features ($p<.05$).

Analysis of variance on the nonstandard sentences showed that Negro subjects did significantly better than white subjects on repeating them ($p<.001$). Significant differences in performance within subjects were obtained on grammatical features ($p<.001$) and the interaction of race and grammatical features ($p<.001$), but no significant differences were found in the interaction of age and grammatical features.

Analysis of the grammatical errors made by the Negro children in repeating the standard sentences showed that they tended to be consistent, e.g., they consistently left the "s" off the third person singular construction, consistently used double negatives, etc. Analysis of the grammatical errors made by the white children in repeating the nonstandard sentences showed that they, too, tended to be consistent in their errors.

Baratz concludes that each group made similar errors when confronted with a dialect different than its own because it had difficulty in switching codes--not because either group had a "language deficiency." She also concludes that Negro children, like white children, are generally not bi-dialectal and tend to have interference problems from their own dialect when attempting to speak a different dialect. She warns educators against using standard English as criterion for tests that seek to determine how well a Negro child has developed language ability because these tests will only measure how well he has learned standard English grammatical structures.

Davis, A.L. "Dialect Research and the Needs of the Schools," Elementary English, 45 (May 1968), 558-560.

The author states that the knowledge gained thus far in dialect research is only the starting point for a better understanding of teaching linguistically different students. Very little research has been done, for example, in the area of non-verbal communication. It would be helpful for educators to know how tone-of-voice signals vary from one dialect to

another and how eye-contact, culturally acceptable distances between speakers, etc. vary. There is a need for more research on nonstandard dialects other than Negro nonstandard, e.g. the dialect spoken in many parts of Appalachia. Also, there is a need for more information on how to teach such groups as the Navaho whose language reflects a world view that is different from that of English speaking people.

The information already provided by dialect research must be reflected in classroom instructional programs.

Dillard, J.L. "The English Teacher and the Language of the Newly Integrated Student," Teachers College Record, 69 (November 1967), 115-120.

Dillard discusses the possibility that some of the linguistic features of the Negro nonstandard dialect may be traced to English-based Creoles. Some of the nonstandard Negro syntactic forms, especially, have much in common with English-based Creoles. These aspects of the Negro dialect are most prevalent in the speech of young children. As the children grow older, they tend to use more of the standard forms and drop the archaic forms. This process is referred to as age-grading. The author believes that age-grading studies must be carried out before grade-by-grade pedagogical materials can be accurately designed. These studies might also shed light on the distinction between dialect forms and language acquisition forms.

Because the child's dialect is most different from the standard at the age when he enters school, Dillard believes that standard English should be taught as a second language

using quasi-foreign language techniques. This would make clear to the child the differences in the two dialects and would help eliminate interference problems.

Labov, William. "Stages in the Acquisition of Standard English," in Roger W. Shuy (Ed.), Social Dialects and Language Learning. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1964, 77-103.

The author reports on a study of English usage by people of New York City which demonstrated that adults from all social classes regard some forms of speech as stigmatized and other forms as prestige forms. Furthermore, the adults in this study, regardless of social class, tended to use more stigmatized forms in casual speech and more prestige forms in formal situations. Though the number of stigmatized and prestige forms used varied according to the social class of the speaker, all classes seemed to share the same norms to define speech styles as prestige or stigmatized.

Labov then turns his attention to children in order to ascertain how they acquire these adult language norms. He suggests that there are six stages in the acquisition of the full range of spoken English:

(1) the basic grammar--child achieves this under influence of parents as a preschooler;
(2) the vernacular--this important stage takes place in the preadolescent years as the child learns to use the local dialect in a manner that is consistent with that of his friends;
(3) social perception--begins with early adolescence as child is exposed to other speech forms and becomes aware of their existence;
(4) stylistic variation--child begins to learn how to modify his speech in the direction of the prestige form in formal situations, typically occurs in high-school;

(5) the consistent standard--often not acquired at all, especially by those below the middle social class; and
(6) the full range--speaker is bi-dialectal, but few people attain this level because they seem to loose the ability to shift "downwards" as they master prestige forms.

Labov lists isolation from standard speakers, structural interference and conflict of value systems as possible explanations for the fact that most lower-class speakers don't reach levels five and six in language acquisition. He offers two solutions to this problem: early training in order to allow the child to enter level five at a higher point than he normally does, or special training which increases the normal rate of acquisition of standard English.

Labov, William. "Some Sources of Reading Problems for Negro Speakers of Nonstandard English," in Joan Baratz and Roger W. Shuy (Eds.), Teaching Black Children to Read. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969, 29-67.

Labov outlines some of the features which distinguish the Negro nonstandard dialect from standard English. Examples of phonological differences such as r-lessness, l-lessness, simplification of consonant clusters, and weakening of final consonants are cited. These differences in pronunciation result in a large number of homonyms in the speech of many Negro children (sure = shore, tin = ten, Ruth = roof, etc.). Labov notes that such pronunciations are not a "slip of the tongue;" they are consistently used. The Negro child is quite likely to be misunderstood by a standard English speaker when these phonological differences coincide with important grammatical differences. For instance, the loss of final /l/ effects the formation of future tenses of verbs. Thus, "they'll" becomes "they",

"he'll" becomes "he," etc. This does not indicate, as the standard English speaker may assume, that the child does not understand the future tense. His knowledge of the meaning of this grammatical structure is evidenced by frequent usage of "going to" and similar phrases. The copula, past tense of verbs, and the -ed suffix are other grammatical features which are likely to be affected in the same manner.

Labov discusses the consequences of these phonological and grammatical characteristics for the teaching of reading. He advises the teacher to accept the system of homonyms and to carefully determine whether the child understands the grammatical concept in question before correcting his oral reading.

Loflin, Marvin D. "A Teaching Problem in Nonstandard Negro English," English Journal, 56 (December 1967), 1312-1314.

Loflin believes that studying the structure of nonstandard dialects is a prerequisite for teaching standard English to nonstandard speakers. He illustrates his point by presenting a sentence in nonstandard English which could cause structural interference for the student if the teacher did not understand the grammar which generated it. The sentence, "The chicken bẽen ate" (as opposed to "The chicken been ate") does not translate into the standard English passive form, "The chicken has been eaten." Instead, it is a response to the question, "Ain't the chicken ate (something) yet?". In order to understand the difference between these two sentences, and others using the been + verb form, the teacher must understand that Negro nonstandard English, in addition to having the passive

form which can be generated by standard English rules, has a nonpassive form which can not be generated by standard English rules. It is, however, governed by a Negro nonstandard rule; in the environment of verb + past, emphatic stress becomes bēen. Thus, Loflin maintains that the teacher who views Negro nonstandard English as a deviation from standard English, and does not understand it as a rule governed and systematic dialect, can not always comprehend it, let alone effectively teach students the standard dialect.

McDavid, Raven I. "American Social Dialects," College English, 26 (December 1964), 254-260.

McDavid's article briefly describes the type of work American linguists are doing to gain a better understanding of American social dialects. He cites some of the problems that confront speakers of a socially stimatized dialect and discusses the linguist's role in helping to solve these problems.

He points out that the study of American dialects is complicated by the fact that there is no single standard dialect as there usually is in European countries (e.g., Parisian French, Moscow Russian, etc.). Instead, from Colonial times on, local cultures have provided the standard pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary for their own particular areas. Thus, "standard" speakers in Atlanta, Boston, and San Francisco speak quite different versions of "standard English," and have different criteria for distinguishing cultivated and uneducated speech. Rapid industrialization and urbanization have accentuated differences in dialects.

Because many dialects are socially stigmatized, the author believes that the speakers of these dialects need to be bi-dialectal. It is the job of linguists, says McDavid, to identify the overt stigmata of underprivileged dialects and help educators develop language programs to teach the local standard variety of speech. An equally important job for them is to help educate the public to the fact that all varieties of language are "...equally normal in their origins, and are transmitted by normal social and cultural forces."

Peisach, Estelle. "Children's Comprehension of Teacher and Peer Speech," Child Development, 36 (June 1965), 467-480.

Reasoning from Bernstein's theory that middle-class children develop elaborated and restricted language codes, while lower class children develop only restricted codes, the author hypothesized that the elaborated code spoken by most teachers would be better understood by middle-class than by lower-class children. She further hypothesized that children would comprehend their peer's speech better if the speaker were from the same socioeconomic background, and that Negro children, regardless of SES, would comprehend Negro children's speech better than that of white children.

Sixty-four first grade children and 127 fifth grade children served as subjects. Each grade level sample was comprised of an approximately equal number of lower-class (SES I) and middle-class (SES III) subjects, and each socioeconomic class sample was fairly well balanced for sex and race. The first grade subjects were asked to orally restore words deleted from

samples of teachers' speech samples which were read to them. The fifth grade subjects were asked to restore words deleted from the speech of children representing different socioeconomic backgrounds and racial groups as well as teachers' speech. Responses were scored on the bases of absolute correctness, contextual correctness (response was not identical to deletion, but retained meaning of statement), and grammatical correctness (response was same part of speech as deletion, even if meaning differed).

Results from teachers' speech samples revealed an increase in SES differences from first to fifth grade. The first grade SESIII subjects were superior to the SESII subjects on the contextual score only ($p<.05$). The fifth grade SES III group was superior to the SES I group on all three response scores ($p<.05$). When I.Q. variations were controlled through analysis of covariance, none of these differences occurred. There were no significant race differences at the first grade level. White fifth grade children scored better than Negro children on the absolute score only ($p<.05$); this happened because the Negro SES III children scored lower than SES III white children--the Negro SES I children scored significantly higher than the white SES I children ($p<.05$). Race differences were eliminated when I.Q. was controlled. Analysis of covariance revealed that, in spite of their higher mean I.Q., fifth grade boys scored significantly lower than fifth grade girls on absolute and contextual measures ($p<.01$).

Results from peer-group speech samples revealed significant SES differences for all three measures; these differences remained after controlling for I.Q. differences. While SES I subjects did as well as SES III subjects on lower-class and Negro children's speech samples, SES III subjects did significantly better than SES I subjects on the middle-class speech samples ($p<.01$) and on the white speech samples ($p<.05$). Though there was little difference in the perfromance of Negro and white children on the Negro speech samples, white children obtained a significantly higher grammatical score than Negro children on the white speech samples ($p<.05$). Girls obtained significantly higher absolute and contextual scores than boys ($p<.01$). A breakdown of scores by SES and sex revealed that SES I girls were superior to SES I boys on all three measures, whereas SES III boys and girls scored approximately equally.

The author concludes that SES differences are considerably more apparent in fifth than in first grade, and that SES is a more relative factor than race in affecting performance on this type of test. In all cases, it was the score that correlated .40 or above with I.Q. that showed SES differences; thus, again demonstrating the interrelationship between language skills and I.Q. test performance. Though relatively few Negro-white differences showed up in this study, one was that Negro SES III subjects' scores, relative to social class, were the least adequate. The author suggests that Negro SES III children speak two dialects and that their lower scores could reflect dialect

interference problems. In the cases where sex differences were obtained, middle-class boys and girls were equal in performance while lower-class boys were inferior to lower-class girls, leading the author to suggest that sex differences reflect differences in motivation and training.

Shuy, Roger. "A Selective Bibliography on Social Dialects," The Linquistic Reporter, 10 (June 1968), 1-5.

Shuy's annotated bibliography is divided into three categories: Theoretical and programmatic aspects, research reports, and pedagogical implications. There are 46 entries in the three sections. This bibliography should prove quite helpful to the teacher who is interested in learning about social dialects and how to teach dialect speaking students.

Shuy, Roger. Detroit Speech: "Careless, Awkward and Inconsistent or Systematic, Graceful and Regular," Elementary English, 45 (May 1968), 565-569.

This article is a report on the research techniques and pedagogical applications of the very extensive Detroit dialect study. The study was designed to answer these basic questions: (1) "What are the features of pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary which set off different social groups, races, age groups and sexes from each other in Detroit?"; (2) "What is the most efficient way to gether this kind of data?"; (3) What is the most efficient way to analyze this kind of data?" and (4) "What will this information say to the English teacher?" Shuy discusses how many and what groups of people were interviewed and what kinds of information was elicited from them. He relates the types of data analysis that are necessary to enable the

researchers to describe how any one person's language patterns differ from those of different and or the same social, racial, and age backgrounds.

Shuy notes that the inner-city child is being asked to unlearn a perfectly good language pattern in favor of another. In the process, he is likely to have many learning problems stemming from the interference of his old dialect.

This article should help the reader understand what is involved in studying another dialect and what is involved in interpreting linguistic data in a sociological framework.

Weener, Paul. "Social Dialect Differences and the Recall of Verbal Messages," Journal of Educational Psychology, 60 (June 1969), 194-199.

Nonstandard English dialects can differ from standard English in semantics, grammer, and phonetics. Weener's study was designed to see whether these dialect differences resulted in a lack of understanding of verbal messages exchanged between speakers of different dialects.

Five procedures were carried out in order that the effects of the dialect differences listed above could be studied. First, language samples were obtained from middle-class and lower-class speakers. The samples were then categorized according to their approximation to English word order (AEWO) into first, second, and fourth order lists; the higher the order, the more closely it approximates the stucture of standard English sentences, and the lower the order, the more it approximates a randomly

selected group of words from the English dictionary. The lists were then judged for source validity by adults who interacted with both language groups, recorded, and presented to 24 first grade subjects from each language group. Each subject was tested at two different times by two different speakers (a middle-class and a lower-class speaker) on both middle and lower-class source material. Both middle and lower-class source material were divided into first, second,and fourth order AEWO lists. The subjects were scored on their immediate recall after the presentation of each list. The results were as follows:

(1) speaker effects--The middle-class subjects recalled more words from the middle-class speaker than the lower-class speaker.($p<.001$). The lower-class subjects also recalled more words from the middle-class speaker, but the difference was not significant. No significant difference was found between the total number of words recalled by the two groups.

(2) source effects--The difference in the AEWO levels of the lists was designed to reveal whether both semantic and syntactic properties of the lists would produce differential recall performance. Neither group was differentially affected by first, second or fourth order AEWO lists to a significant degree.

Weener concludes that many lower-class children may develop bi-dialectical comprehension skills, but speak only one of the dialects. He points out, however, that two factors should be considered in evaluating the results. First, the women who contributed the lower-class samples were apparently more inclined toward the middle class than were the lower-class subjects. Second, the AEWO procedure of collecting language samples apparently produced a more formal speaking style than the lower-class child would be likely to hear in a more informal setting.

Section C:
Language Programs for the Linguistically Different Child

Most of the items in this section could be placed into one of two categories depending on the author's attitude toward the nonstandard dialect. The first category consists of language programs that are designed to correct the child's dialect and to teach him, simultaneously, the cognitive uses of standard English. Designers of these programs view the child as linguistically deprived. They generally advocate beginning language instruction as soon as possible, preferably during the preschool years. The second category includes the programs which are designed to teach a second dialect, i.e., standard English. Designers of these programs do not want to eradicate the child's nonstandard dialect. They believe that it is adequate for communicating and for learning. Instead, they advocate teaching the child standard English as an additional dialect so he will be able to use it in the social situations that call for it. Many advocates of this approach would delay intensive structured language instruction until after the child has completed the primary grades.

Some of the items in this section describe the results of existing programs. Others focus on theoretical considerations for developing new ones.

Allen, Virginia F. "A Second Dialect Is Not a Foreign Language," in James Alatis (Ed.), Report of the Twenthieth Annual Round Table Meeting on Linguistics and Language Studies. Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press, 1970, 189-202.

Allen's article deals with the differences in foreign language teaching and second dialect teaching. She is particularly concerned with the misinterpretations that have arisen as a result of the trend to teach a second dialect using foreign language approaches.

There are a number of similarities in the two approaches which the author points out. The differences, however, are very important. The crucial difference is that the dialect speaker is not learning a foreign language--he successfully communicates his ideas in English every day. Because he can comprehend the standard dialect being taught, he may not see the need to drill on oral production of certain features of it. No amount of drill is likely to be successful until the student is shown his own particular problem in producing the material covered by the drill. In foreign language programs testing is withheld until the student is given a chance to master the material being covered. In second dialect learning it may prove more effective to test before the student is exposed to the material so that he can see where his problem exists.

The novelty of a foreign language helps insure that the student won't be bored by repetitious practice materials with nonstimulating content. This is not the case with dialect speaking students. They understand English--they expect it to

say something. Practice materials must be developed that will be meaningful and stimulating.

Finally, the second-dialect teacher faces a problem in preserving his students' self-esteem that the foreign language teacher does not face.

Bereiter, Carl and Siegfried Engelmann. Teaching Disadvantaged Children in the Preschool. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall, 1966, 312 pp.

The Bereiter-Engelmann preschool is predicated upon the idea that disadvantaged children have been deprived of developing certain cognitive uses of language. The authors argue that success in school hinges upon mastery of certain language skills; their preschool, therefore, features highly structured, intensive language training to rapidly develop those language skills.

The first and second chapters present their rationale for equating culture deprivation with language deprivation and setting up a rigidly structured language program. The third chapter states the academic goals of their preschool in terms of specific tasks the child should be able to perform, and summarizes the results of their program with fifteen disadvantaged four year olds. Bereiter and Engelmann report that after seven months of instruction, the children made substantial gains on the verbal subtests of the ITPA and ranged the mean I.Q. from 93 to 100. The Wide-Range Achievement Test results indicated that the children were ready to begin first grade reading and arithmetic programs.

The remaining eight chapters instruct the reader in management of the academically oriented preschool, and outline the teaching strategies to be used in the instructional programs. These teaching strategies are related in minute detail for each of the programs (language, music, arithmetic, and reading). The student--teacher ratio in the authors' preschool is kept very low (5:1), and only 20 minutes of the two-hour school day are used for unstructured activity. Instruction in all subject areas features a repetitive presentation pattern which calls for exact, predetermined responses, as little as possible individualized instruction, and enforced participation of all children at all times in all programs.

The most important area, language instruction, is designed to teach those aspects of language which the authors believe to be instrumental in reasoning. The drills are designed to teach such skills as ability to use affirmative and "not" statements, to handle polar opposites, to perform "if-then" deductions, etc.

The reading program emphasizes developing students' awareness of words as the basic unit in reading, and the importance of the alphabetic principle in English orthography. The authors state that their approach resembles the linguistic approaches of Cloomfield and Fries.

The math program is designed to provide a basic understanding of arithmetic as it relates to counting. Music is included in the preschool program because the authors believe it can be used as a language builder.

Brottman, Marvin A. (Ed.). Language Remediation for the Disadvantaged Preschool Child. No. 124 in series, Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, Vol. 33, No. 8. Chicago: William Byrd Press, 1968, 83 pp.

This monograph is comprised of five papers dealing with language programs for disadvantaged preschool children. The focal point of the papers is the degree of structure that is desirable in language programs.

The first paper, by Minuchin and Biber, presents a rationale for very loosely structured language development program. Language is viewed as developing within the context of social and emotional development and, therefore, language skill cannot be taught separately from the total school experience.

The second paper, by Lassar Gotkin, describes a language and concept curriculum (Matrix Games, 1967) which utilizes many concepts of programmed instruction. It is a structured program, but one which Gotkin believes is more flexible than the Bereiter program and which, unlike theirs, is concerned with other skills which involve the roles children take in instructional settings.

The third paper, by Jean Osborn, is a description of a highly structured approach (the Bereiter-Engelmann preschool) accompanied by a rationale for this type of organizational pattern.

The fourth paper, by Carolyn Stern, discusses some of the problems involved in evaluating language programs such as lack of explicitly stated behavioral objectives and the use of testing instruments that are inappropriate for the children and the task at hand.

The fifth paper, by Joyce Dickie, reports on the results of a research project designed to compare the three approaches to language programming discussed in the first three papers. Fifty Negro children, ranging in age from 46-58 months, were randomly assigned to one of the treatment classes structured according to the Gotkin method, Bereiter method, or the traditional method. After five months of training, the children were given the same three language tests they had been given as pretests (these tests are among the ones discussed in the Stern article). Results showed no significant differences between treatment groups, though the structured groups tended to score slightly higher than the unstructured group. All three groups, however, demonstrated statistically significant gains over control group children who were not enrolled in any language program. A second study designed to eliminate some of the problems of experimental control encountered in the first study once again failed to find significant differences between the structured and unstructured approaches. Brottman and the five contributors discuss language goals for disadvantaged children in the concluding section of this monograph.

Feigenbaum, Irwin. "The Use of Nonstandard English in Teaching Standard: Contrast and Comparison," in R.W. Fasold and R.W. Shuy (Eds.), Teaching Standard English in the Inner City. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1970, 87-104.

This article outlines an approach for teaching standard English to inner-city students that utilizes the students' own dialect. Because Negro nonstandard English is based on

systematic grammatical rules, the differences between the dialects are also systematic. Feigenbaum believes that the most effective and efficient way to teaching standard English is to make the students aware of these differences by comparing their own dialect to standard English.

Because the goal of language programs for dialect speaking students is to make them able to comprehend and produce spoken standard English, Feigenbaum's methods emphasize oral drills. He outlines a number of drills that are of a stimulus-response nature. The teacher, at the beginning level, produces pairs of sentences in nonstandard and standard, and the students respond by telling which is which. At the next level, the students translate standard sentences to nonstandard and vice versa. As the students gain competence, the stimulus statements or questions call for responses that must be thought out by the student rather than predetermined rote answers. At all levels, however, the emphasis is on distinguishing standard English from nonstandard, and speaking accurate standard English when it is appropriate. Feigenbaum makes several suggestions for implementing the drills in the classroom: (1) Drilling should be conducted for brief periods of time on a regular basis, (2) exaggerated pronunciation and slow renditions of standard English should be avoided and (3) the teacher who is very uncomfortable speaking nonstandard before the class can let students lead the drill.

Ferguson, Charles. "Teaching Standard Languages to Dialect Speakers," in Roger W. Shuy (Ed.), Social Dialects Language Learning. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1964, 112-117.

This article is an attempt to put the problem of educating American dialect speakers into an international perspective in order to better define the problem. Ferguson notes that though the language or dialect we speak is normally outside the realm of conscious choice, the language used as a medium of instruction is very much a matter of choice.

In other parts of the world, one of three kinds of language is generally chosen for instruction: (1) the "native" language of the child, i.e., the one he hears and speaks at home; (2) a "near-native" or "quasi-native" language which is very similar to the native language, but different enough to cause problems of communication and interference or (3) a foreign language which is very different from the child's native language.

Ferguson discusses the second kind of language the most thoroughly because it is of most significance to the U.S. situation. He notes that in some other countries where a standard dialect is used as the instructional medium and nonstandard dialects are spoken by the students, there is no social stigma attached to the nonstandard dialect. This is not the case in the U.S. Although the U.S. has unquestioningly opted to use standard English as the language for instruction, Ferguson believes that other possibilities should be considered in the case of Spanish, Chinese or American Indian children. The nonstandard Negro speaker, however, presents a different problem. His dialect is neither a regional dialect nor another language. He believes that this dialect presents us with two choices--

either make the speakers of this dialect bi-dialectal or impose standard English on these speakers and attempt to eradicate their dialect. In order to make either choice, says the author, we must research the problem in much more depth than we have up til now.

Hoffman, Melvin. "The Harmful Effects of Traditional Language Arts Teaching Methods When Used With Disadvantaged Afro-American Children," Elementary English, 47 (May 1970), 678-683.

Hoffman contends that three factors have accounted for the harmful effects of traditional language arts teaching methods on disadvantaged Black children. The first of these factors is "myth." One of several harmful myths concerning language arts teaching is "if a teacher corrects mistakes often enough, over a long enough period of time and provides a correct model, he or she will succeed in teaching language arts materials." What often results instead is a child who is aware of the standard form of speech but not the standard distribution. Thus, from a correction of "they was" to "they were," the child overcorrects to "he were."

The second important cause of harm is "masking," i.e., a superficial resemblance of forms which leads the observer to believe they are equivalent. For instance, the teacher who equates "he be working" to "he is working" fails to recognize a nonstandard use of the verb "to be" that has no equivalent in standard English. Her correction will thus only further confuse the child.

The third cause of harmful teaching methods is lack of

awareness of mode, i.e., not being aware of the differences between a formal and an informal mode of speech among Black dialect speakers. The formal mode, says Hoffman is signaled by frequent overcorrections, longer pauses and narrower pitch variation. The teacher who is not aware of whether the student is speaking in the informal mode (i.e., his dialect) or the formal mode (attempting to speak the standard) and indiscriminately corrects him in each case will hopelessly confuse the child as well as discourage him from attempting to learn standard English.

Karnes, Merle B., James A. Teska and Audrey S. Hodgins. "The Effects of Four Programs of Classroom Intervention on the Intellectual and Language Development of Four-Year-Old Disadvantaged Children," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 40 (January, 1970), 58-76.

Sixty four-year-old disadvantaged children were divided into four groups (class units) and each group was put into a different type of preschool program. Each class unit contained a ratio of 67% Negro children to 33% Caucasian children, and 50% boys, 50% girls. The I.Q. distributions were equal in the four groups. One group was put into a traditional nursery school program. The second group attended a Community-Integrated program which operated at four neighborhood centers. The disadvantaged children were integrated in groups of two to four into various sessions at each of these four centers. The other children in the Community-Integrated program were predominantly middle and upper-class Caucasion children. The program provided a traditional nursery school experience. The children in the third group were

put into a Montessori program. The "prepared environment" of the Montessori school put it higher on the level of structure than the two traditional nursery school programs. The fourth group was put into a highly structured program. The learning tasks were designed to teach specific skills considered necessary for success in school. In addition, teachers were told to teach the language skills which are tested by the ITPA. All children attended their respective programs for no less than seven, or more than eight, months. All children spent approximately two hours and fifteen minutes per day in school.

The children were given pre- and post-tests in the following areas: (1) intellectual functioning as measured by the Stanford-Binet Individual Intelligence Scale, (2) language development as measured by the ITPA, and (3) vocabulary comprehension as measured by the PPVT. In intellectual functioning the highly structured group made significantly greater gains than the other three. Only the Community-Integrated group failed to score significantly higher on the post-test than on the pre-test. Seventy-four percent of the Experimental group, i.e., the highly structured group, made gains of ten points or more, while only 30% to 39% of the children in the other three groups made similar gains.

The ITPA pre-tests showed that the children, as a whole, were most deficit on the three subtests related to verbal expressive abilities. Only the Experimental group eliminated this deficit on all three subtests of the post-test. The

Traditional group obtained statistically significant gains on one of the three subtests. The performance of the Montessori and the Community-Integrated groups did not significantly improve on the three subtests. On the test as a whole, the Experimental group made the most dramatic gains, the Traditional group made modest gains, and the other two groups made smaller and less consistent gains.

On the PPVT the Traditional and Experimental groups made significant gains--there was no significant difference between the two approaches. The Community-Integrated and Montessori groups did not make significant gains on the post-test.

It was concluded that factors other than the degree of structure affected the changes represented by the test scores. Though the children in the Experimental group showed the greatest gains, and those in the Montessori group made the least, an explanation for the poor showing of the Montessori children could be the lack of language concomitant with performance. Though the environment was structured insofar as the learning experiences were concerned, the child was not required to verbalize his motor-sensory experiences.

That the Community-Integrated group did not show progress equal to the Traditional group, as expected, could perhaps be explained by their integration in small numbers into a large group of middle-class children (whereas the Traditional group was homogeneous). Teachers of the Community-Integrated group noted that the disadvantaged children seemed to withdraw

from quasi-structured, teacher-directed activities. The authors suggest that this behavior was more likely due to the inequitable ratio of the two groups rather than socioeconomic integration per se. They attribute the Experimental group's dramatic gains to the program's success at connecting verbal expression and cognitive development through structured learning situations.

Language Programs for the Disadvantaged. Report of the National Council of Teachers of English, 1965, 327 pp.

This publication contains the report of the NCTE Task Force on programs for the disadvantaged based on their observations of 190 programs across the U.S. In observing these programs, the Task Force members found that many widespread beliefs concerning teaching the disadvantaged are fallacious, i.e., that discipline is a primary problem, that all disadvantaged children are apathetic or dull, that disadvantaged learners cannot engage in inductive, inquiry-centered learning, etc. The report focuses on the various approaches and materials that are being used in teaching language and reading on the preschool, elementary, secondary, and adult basic education levels. Teacher education in this field is also reported on.

The Task Force members, on the basis of their observations, make recommendations for establishing and operating programs for the disadvantaged. Two papers summarizing research on dialects and language development, and an annotated bibliography follow the Task Force findings.

Loban, Walter. Problems in Oral English. NCTE Research Report No. 5. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1966, 72 pp.

Loban's book reports some of the results of a study that traced the language development of 338 students over a ten year period. The purpose of the study was to "...identify the most crucial and frequent oral language difficulties so teachers may decide where to place instructional emphasis." Of the 338 students, 113 are reported on in this book. They were divided into four subgroups: Caucasian, high language proficiency; Caucasian, low language proficiency; Negro, low language proficiency; and random. There were 21 subjects in each of the first three groups and 50 in the random group. Each subject had been interviewed once a year for ten years, and his spoken responses recorded.

The instances of nonstandard speech were divided into the following categories: verb problems, pronoun problems, syntactic confusion, and "other problems." Pronunciation was not considered in this study.

The number of deviations from standard English per 1000 words in each category was computed for each subgroup. The appendix contains a more detailed statistical analysis as well as a discussion of various problems underlying the analysis of the data. Some of the more important findings are as follows. (1) Among Negro students, the five most frequent deviations from standard English represented difficulties with verbs. Some of these problems were largely overcome by the time the students got to the upper grades, but the verb "to be" remained a problem. (2) Among the Caucasian students, the most frequent deviations

had to do with clarity and precision of communication rather than problems of habit or usage.

(3) All groups showed an increase in deviations from standard English around the sixth grade. The author believes that this reflects temporary difficulties with coherence as students learn to speak in more complex and longer sentences rather than growing ineptness in the use of language.

Some implications for language instruction are as follows.

(1) Oral drill is more effective than workbook drills on usage.

(2) Students from standard English speaking homes do not need drills on usage, but need help with coherence.

(3) Oral activities are more helpful in improving coherence than workbook drills.

(4) Negroes who speak a nonstandard dialect need special help with the verb "to be," pronoun usage and the double negative. They also need help with coherence.

(5) Drilling all students on the same skill is ineffective and inefficient. Individual students need help with individual problems.

McDavid, Raven I. "A Checklist of Significant Features for Discriminating Social Dialects," in Eldonna L. Everetts (Ed.), Dimensions of Dialect. (Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1967, 7-13.

McDavid presents a list of dialect features which are amenable to change by pattern drills. Only those features which occur in speech as well as writing are included; other features, while important as social markers, are excluded when they do not lend themselves to pattern drills. He claims that the features

in the list are diagnostic everywhere, though not all of them occur in every situation where differences in social dialects are important.

The list is divided into two sections--pronunciation and inflection. In the section on pronunciation such features as "failure to make the distinction between the vowels of bird and Boyd" and "heavy stress on what is a weak stressed final syllable in standard English, giving accident, president, etc." are pointed out. The inflection section is divided into parts of speech, and the nonstandard features of each are pointed out.

McDavid does not attempt to outline the drills or offer any methods for teaching standard English to dialect speakers. His list is for use in developing a systematic approach to teaching standard English.

Nonstandard Dialect. Report by the Board of Education of the City of New York. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1967.

This monograph was published to provide New York City teachers with a program of instruction for teaching standard English to NSE speaking pupils. Its contents can be adapted to other parts of the country, but the forward cautions that this must be done with care.

The overview points out the need that divergent speakers have for standard English for upward socioeconomic mobility, while cautioning the teacher to accept the nonstandard dialect in appropriate situations. Some causes of resistance to language change are noted, e.g., peer group pressure to conform, past censure of the nonstandard form, and variations in teachers'

language patterns which confuse students. In order to discourage such resistance, teachers are instructed to maintain a relaxed classroom atmosphere, utilize T.V., radio, and movies, emphasize oral language in English instruction, etc. The goals of the standard English program are also outlined in the overview. A "Content of Instruction" chapter follows which emphasizes that NSE is governed by definite systems and rules. The more general rules are defined.

The remainder of the book deals with the instructional program. The program is divided into three phases. The general aim of the first phase is to demonstrate to the student the existence of many regional dialects while pointing out the need for mastery of standard English for socioeconomic success. Motivational and developmental activities and a variety of drills follow. The general aim of phase two is to teach the standard spoken language determined by various circumstances. Instructions for activities such as role playing, telephone and interview practice, and field trips follow. Phase three focuses on acquiring listening skills and appropriate articulation and pronunciation. Drills and activities follow this section also.

Postman, Neil and Charles Weingartner. Linguistics: A Revolution in Teaching. New York: Delacorte Press, 1966, 209 pp.

In the first part of their book, Postman and Weingartner have answered the questions, "What is linguistics?", "What do linguists do?", and "What is linguistics good for?". Their answers are addressed to the layman in a non-technical,

highly readable manner.

Of particular interest to the teacher of dialect speaking children is the second part of the book in which the authors deal with grammar, usage, semantics, and linguistics and reading. The theme of this section is that language is constantly in a state of change and that "correct" usage is based on custom, not irrefutable laws. They do not argue that any form of English is as "correct" as any other; rather, that the "correctness" or "incorrectness" of any language is found in the opinion of those who use the language, not in the linguistic form itself. Their definition of a user of "good" English is thus, "...one whose command of a wide range of language styles, dialects, and usages permits him to achieve, through language, the greatest variety of purposes."

Each of the chapters in the second part of the book contains suggestions for applying linguistics in the classroom. The emphasis is on student research into usage, semantics, grammar, lexicography, etc. While all students could benefit from these activities, it seems likely that the divergent speaker would find this flexible approach to the study of language especially interesting and enlightening.

Rhodes, Odis O. "Some Implications for Teaching Reading to Speakers of Black Dialect," Viewpoints (Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University), 46 (May 1970), 117-147.

The author, who is black and bi-dialectal, discusses black dialect--what it is, what characteristics set it apart from standard English, and what considerations must be given it in the education process. He emphasizes the importance of educating

society to accept and respect black dialect, but believes that it is imperative to educate black dialect speakers to be bi-dialectal.

Rhodes believes that no progress can be made toward the solution of the problems of teaching reading to dialect speakers until teachers become sensitized to the problems of NSE speakers, accept their dialect, and acquire an elementary understanding of it. Rhodes suggests that teachers who believe that black dialect speakers are nonverbal ask themselves the following questions (Riessman, 1966): (1) Under what conditions are these children verbal? (2) What king of stimuli do they respond to verbally? (3) With whom are they verbal? (4) What do they talk about? (5) What parts of speech do they use?

Several pages of the article are devoted to a summary of research findings that deal with the vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar of black dialect and how they differ from those features in standard English. He emphasizes the point that teachers must have knowledge of these dialect differences.

He agrees with Loban (1968) that different levels of education should emphasize those aspects of language most appropriate for the stage of language development that the child is in. Thus, preschool and kindergarten emphasis should be on developing the child's ability to think and express ideas in his own dialect, not on teaching him standard English. At the primary level the child would learn to read in his own dialect and would participate in choral speaking, dramatizations, puppetry,

etc. to develop his language facility. At this level, however, he would also begin to participate in drill activities designed to teach the major contrastive elements of black dialect and standard English. In the intermediate grades, children should become aware of many foreign and national dialects and should sing, read rhymes, etc., in order to reinforce the idea that standard English is just one more dialect to imitate. Around the fifth and sixth grade levels, the child (who should by then be secure in his knowledge that his own dialect is accepted and respected) should be exposed to more intensive and structured training in standard English which would continue throughout high school.

Sledd, James. "Bi-Dialectalism: The Linguistics of White Supremacy," English Journal, 58 (December 1969), 1307-1315 and 1329.

In this article Sledd vigorously attacks the linguists' proposal that those who speak a nonstandard dialect be encouraged to become bi-dialectal. He charges that the linguists have merely replaced the naive and idealistic theory that one should learn standard English because it is the only way to get ahead in this country. Bi-dialectalism, he says, is built on the basic assumption "...that the prejudices of middle-class whites cannot be changed but must be accepted and even enforced on lesser breeds." He notes that upward mobility is assumed to be the goal of education, but "...white power will deny upward mobility to speakers of black English, who must, therefore, be made to talk white English in their contacts with the white world."

He criticizes the NCTE publications Social Dialects and Language Learning and Language Programs for the Disadvantaged, and the work of Labov, Shuy, and various other linguists for proposing language programs for nonstandard speakers that are, by their own admission, difficult to design and implement and which may or may not bring about the desired results. He charges that even if it were desirable to teach standard English to NSE speakers, linguists' knowledge of dialects and the best methods of teaching them is far too meager to form a sound basis for a pedagogical approach.

Sledd's answer to the language-difference problem is sweeping social change. The English teacher's role in bringing about political reform would consist in teaching children "...the relations between group differences and speech differences, and the good and bad uses of speech differences by groups and by individuals." Middle-class children should be taught to understand the life and language of the oppressed. Money spent on bi-dialectalism must, instead, be spent on teaching minority group children to read; and, perhaps, for teaching reading and writing in black English. He closes the article with the statement, "If the majority can rid itself of prejudices, and if the minorities can get or be given an education, differences between dialects are unlikely to hurt anybody much."

Stemmler, Anne O. "An Experimental Approach to the Teaching of Oral Language and Reading," Harvard Educational Review, 36 (Winter 1966), 42-59.

> "This article has two general purposes. The first is to describe the actual construction of a new approach for systematically developing and interrelating oral language and reading behavior for the particular group of children having a high incidence of reading failure. The second purpose is to use this approach to exemplify one way of indentifying and organizing essential elements into a conceptual framework from which to develop a program for teaching oral language and reading." (P. 43)

Although Stemmler's article describes preliminary work in designing a first grade language and reading program for Spanish speaking students, the educational and psychological principles she utilized in her approach to the problem should prove relevant to programs designed for other linguistically different groups as well. The first phase of program construction involved selecting basic organizing elements and starting points. The author and her colleagues decided on an audio-lingual technique for the major teaching method in oral language instruction. The content selected for developing oral language was science-based materials, chosen because they were considered to be as culture fair as possible. Reading instruction was delayed until children evidence some mastery of English.

After observing various deficiencies in the experimental group, Stemmler concluded that the approach had to develop the perceptual, cognitive, and language behaviors most directly related to reading as well as providing experiences to allow children to develop more fluency in English before beginning reading. She drew on principles from child and learning psychology to develop lesson plans which featured providing concrete experiences directly related to the concept to be

taught (e.g., "shapes") before presenting the language concept; utilizing inductive thinking patterns prior to inductive and analogical patterns; providing reinforcement and follow-up games with each lesson; and using readiness materials organized around a regular content field.

When children were ready to read, they were taught by the use of experience charts derived from the experimental program and from basal readers.

Stemmler believes that the act of reading encompasses two basic categories of attributes: (1) the comparatively narrow band of acquired perceptual-cognitive abilities built upon physiological traits and (2) the learner's attitudes and perceptions of himself, the learning task, and his role in the learning situation. As the children's lack of self-confidence became increasingly evident to the staff, the third phase of the experiment was undertaken to build into the program certain ativities which would build up the child's self-esteem while increasing language and reading skills. The underlying themes of these activities include differentiating oneself from others and perceiving oneself as a member of certain groups.

A lack of reliable testing instruments has hindered evaluation of the experimental group's progress as compared with the control groups. Preliminary finding based on a test battery in science and a comprehensive questionnaire completed by principals and teachers suggest that the experimental group children are making more rapid reading progress and are more fluent in English than the control group.

Stewart, William A. "Urban Negro Speech: Sociolinguistic Factors Affecting English Teaching," in R.W. Shuy, (Ed.), Social Dialects and Language Learning. Champaign, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1965.

Stewart begins his article by pointing out the difficulty of categorizing the teaching of standard English to NSE speakers under either native language teaching or foreign language teaching. In native language teaching one assumes that the learner has command of the basic patterns of standard English. In foreign language teaching one assumes the learner has no knowledge of the language to be learned. As neither is the case with dialect speakers, Stewart refers to the teaching situation as a "quasi-foreign language" situation.

Though a number of quasi-foreign language relationships exist in the U.S., Stewart focuses on the urban Negro's language pattern because it is most widespread and resistant to self-correction. Specifically, he focuses on the Washington, D.C. area because the migration into the city from the south and other areas of the U.S. has resulted in many Negro dialects, ranging from those which are most different from standard English to those which most closely approximate it. He refers to these dialects as basilect and acrolect dialects respectively.

Stewart has found that these dialect differences often correlate with certain kinds of informal social structure. An example of this sociolinguistic phenomenon is the restriction of basilect patterns, even in predominantly lower-class neighborhoods, to young children. At the age of seven or eight, a dialect shift takes place; that is, the child moves out of "pure" basilect

into a dialect level which is higher up in the hierarchy. This change is apparently due to peer group influence rather than formal education. This dialect change may involve a greater shift in morphological appearance than in basic grammar patterns. Thus, the child may have problems with structural interference from the basilect patterns though he no longer appears to be a basilect user.

Such problems have led Stewart to make several suggestions for teaching methods and research in teaching standard English to NSE speaking children. First, he believe that the use of certain foreign-language teaching methods--especially those based on contrastive studies--would be most effective in dealing with interference problems. Second, he says a linguistic analysis and description of the NSE dialect is a prerequisite to English teaching. Third, the classrooms teacher needs training in the dialect of his students in order to evaluate their progress. Finally, he suggests exploring the area of the social context of dialect behavior because this knowledge could be potentially useful in English teaching.

Wolfram, Walt. "Sociolinguistic Implications for Educational Sequencing," in R.W. Fasold and R.W. Shuy (Eds.), Teaching Standard English in the Inner City. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1970, 1970, 105-119

Wolfram is concerned about the ordering of standard English pedagogical materials for several reasons. First, not all features of Black English immediately categorize the socioeconomic class of the speaker; that is, some dialect features are more socially diagnostic than others. Second, students will

perceive their progress more readily, and therefore, be more motivated if they learn the major differences between the two dialects before they learn the minor ones. Third, it is often the case that students don't complete all the material in a given course. Therefore, the most relevant material should be covered first.

Wolfram discusses five sociolinguistic factors that should provide a basis for determining the order of standard English instructional materials.

(1) social diagnosticity of linguistic variables--those linguistic features which most markedly set nonstandard speakers apart from standard speakers should be taught first.

(2) the generality of rules--the more general the rule, the earlier it should be introduced in the materials

(3) phonological versus grammatical variables--grammatical features, which are more socially diagnostic, should be focused on before phonological features.

(4) regional versus general social significance--general features should be taught before regional features

(5) relative frequency of items--those nonstandard forms that occur frequently in normal conversation should be dealt with before those which are relatively rare

When trying to determine what priority should be given to specific features in instruction, Wolfram suggests that each item be considered in terms of how many of the above linguistic criteria it fulfills. He shows the reader how to set up a matrix of cruciality to determine this.

Part II:
Teaching Reading to Linguistically Different Learners

Reading is a language related process. A large number of children whose language is different from that spoken by mainstream Americans are failing to learn how to read. These two statements are so obvious that they hardly bear repeating, and yet, the relationship between language and the reading process and how this relationship affects the dialect speaking child are factors which are far from being adequately explained. It would be naive to assume that dialect differences are the only causal factor in reading failure--after all, many standard English speaking children also have reading deficiencies. It can be assumed, however, that both groups, for any number of possible reasons, are failing to grasp the relationship between the printed symbols on the page and their own spoken language. The items in the "Linguistic Theory and Reading" section explore this relationship and suggest many reasons why the child may fail to understand it.

The problem of improving the reading achievement of linguistically different children is too pressing to delay action until all theories about how and why children fail to read have been investigated. New approaches and materials have been, and must continue to be, tried in order to gain new

insights into the problem and how to solve it. The "Approaches and Materials" section contains items which discuss theoretical bases for new instructional approaches and describe the results of some of the approaches that have been tried. Additional items evaluate materials that are frequently used with linguistically different children.

Section A: Linguistic Theory and Reading

It has been said that all successful methods of teaching reading are linguistic methods, but differ in the linguistic view which they assume.[1] The items in this section represent many of the linguistic views from which one can examine the reading process.

[1] Sumner Ives, "Some Notes on Meaning and Syntax," The Reading Teacher, 18 (December 1964), p. 179

Bormuth, John R. "An Operational Definition of Comprehension Instruction," in Kenneth S. Goodman and James T. Fleming (Eds.), Psycholinguistics and the Teaching of Reading. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1969, 48-60.

Bormuth contends that attempts to teach comprehension skills have thus far been ineffective because teachers and researchers have not understood the role of language in the comprehension process. His definition of comprehension is "...a set of processes which operate on specific features of language." If one is to test students' comprehension of these processes, the tasks must meet four criteria: (1) The task in question must correspond to a linguistic feature one tries to teach children to understand, (2) the task must force the child to use the skill one thinks it does, (3) the definitions which describe how the tasks are constructed should be as objective as possible and (4) the materials used should be of the type that can be easily understood and constructed by teachers. Also, in studying comprehension one must distinguish between comprehension and achievement testing, and between a student's prior knowledge and that which represents knowledge gained through reading.

Bormuth believes that there are three components in comprehension instruction: (1) The language stimulus, i.e., material to be comprehended; (2) the task used to test comprehension and (3) the student's response to that task. It is important to distinguish the various levels of difficulty represented by the first and second components in sequencing comprehension instruction.

The author demsonstrates how a comprehension question can be operationally defined in such a way as to meet the criteria he has set up. Because meaning is derived from a sentence by understanding the modifications which occur between lexical constituents, comprehension questions must be designed in such a way as to test the student's understanding of these modifications. He draws mainly from transformational-generative grammar to provide a framework in which various types of questions can be labelled according to which specific modifications in the text they test the understanding of. Thus, the questions are designed to determine whether the student can comprehend various transforms, sematic substitutions, intersentence relationships, etc.

He does not claim that his outline of question types is sufficient to teach or test all of the processes identified as comprehension processes. He does believe, however, that teachers and researchers must work in the direction of operationally defining questions in order to make comprehension instruction relevant to comprehension processes and in order to carry on scientific research in the area of comprehension instruction.

Carroll, John B. "Some Neglected Relationships in Reading and Language Learning," Elementary English, 43 (October 1966), 577-582.

Carroll notes that children learn the tremendously complex patterns of language relatively effortlessly and without being "taught" in the usual sense. In this article, he compares learning to read with natural language learning in order to see

what aspects of language learning could be applied to the teaching of reading. He points out a number of similarities and differences in the two processes, and focuses on an apparent paradox in applying the principles of language learning to reading instruction: the child learns his native language without the stimuli being "programmed" in any way, but efficient teaching seems to call for programming by the teacher or material-writer. He proposes a hypothesis which he calls the "hypothesis of contiguous contrast learning" in order to account for this paradox. It asserts that "..the learning of an item is facilitated by virtue of its contrast with partially similar items that are contiguous in time of presentation." Carroll believes that this principle is at work when the child learns to comprehend language and to speak. For instance, he learns a noun plural by recognizing the contrasting feature (a plural morpheme, in this case) that sets it apart from the singular noun he already knows. He learns verb tenses and many other grammatical features of his language in the same manner.

When this principle is applied to reading, it can guide the teacher in sequencing reading material in an effective and meaningful way. He points out that sequencing involves more than presenting items one at a time--to be successful, items must be presented in such a way that one item will properly contrast with similar items. But in order to be successful, this kind of instruction must be alternated with periods in which the child is exposed to the richness of language in

meaningful material. Carroll suspects that this procedure is analogous to the natural language learning situation in which the child efficiently learns aspects of language which are in no way programmed or taught. This exposure to unsequenced materials would give the child a chance to test and extend the generalizations he made during the carefully controlled instruction period, and would provide new stimuli that would afford contrasts with what the child has already learned.

Fillmer, Henry T. "Linguistics and Reading Comprehension," Education, 86 (November 1965), 158-161.

Fillmer appraises the linguistic approach and the traditional approach to reading in terms of Piaget's three stages of intellectual development (classified by Whitehead as the stages of romance, precision, and generalization). The romance stage begins with the child's realization that language has meaning. The author says that linguists recognize this stage by stressing meaningful communication in language activities. Vocabulary and language structure control are provided by encouraging the child to read his own compositions. Traditional programs may inhibit the development of the romantic stage by requiring the child to analyze isolated words and read materials characterized by a sterile vocabulary and meaningless plots.

The second stage of intellectual development, the precision stage begins when the child recognizes the need for developing a method of analyzing the factual information related to language. Fillmer believes that the traditional approach often imposes precision activities on the child during the romantic stage,

while the linguistic approach has generated sufficient motivation during the romantic stage to sustain him through the necessary and natural stage of systematic analysis.

The third stage, generalization, is characterized by a return to the enthusiasm of the romantic stage with the structured understandings acquired in the precision stage. Fillmer notes that many pupils never reach this stage and suggests that they would if teachers applied the knowledge made available by linguists.

Fries, Charles C. Linguistics and Reading. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1962, 265 pp.

Fries' purpose in this book is to bring some of the results of linguistic research to reading teachers in the hopes that this knowledge will enable them to provide a better approach to beginning reading instruction. One of the first chapters of the book deals with the development of linguistic science from 1820 to the present. This chapter provides a good introduction to the nature and scope of linguistic research, as well as some basic knowledge about the nature of human language. A later chapter, that is particularly helpful, thoroughly explains the differences in the terms "phonics," "phonetics," and "phonemics."

Fries emphasizes the point that the child comes to school with highly developed language skills. He has learned language by learning to recognize the contrasting sound patterns (phonemes) which identify English words. Learning to read, says Fries, involves only a transfer from recognizing words as represented by sound wave patterns to recognizing words as represented by

graphic patterns. The child must learn to build up high speed recognition responses to these graphic patterns. This is best accomplished by focusing on the contrastive spelling patterns of words that illustrate the most common combinations of phonemes. Lists of these words and an explanation of the sequence and methods to be used in his linguistic approach to beginning reading instruction are contained in chapters six and seven. He contends that reading and writing are very different abilities and, therefore, writing has no place in beginning reading instruction.

Fries discusses the shortcomings of the "word approach" and the phonics methods of teaching beginning reading. He also very briefly discusses later stages in reading, i.e., those that follow the transfer stage.

Goodman, Kenneth S. "A Linguistic Study of Cues and Miscues in Reading," Elementary English, 42 (October 1965), 639-643.

Goodman believes that children, in reconstructing a message from written language (i.e., reading), are cued or miscued by various systems as they interact with the written material. There are within word cues such as letter-sound relationships, word configuration, recurrent spelling patterns, etc. Other cues exist in the flow of language--function order, function words, inflection, etc. There are also cues which are external to language and the reader such as pictures, teacher prompting, etc.; and cues within the reader such as his idiolect, facility with language, conceptual background, etc. Goodman's study was designed to investigate how children use these cue systems in

reading.

The 100 first, second, and third grade children from an industrial suburb of Detroit who served as subjects were given work lists to read aloud to an assistant. When the child's reading of a particular word list indicated that the words on it were at approximately his reading level, he was given a story to read aloud based on those words.

Goodman assumed that children would be able to read many words in the stories which they could not recognize in the list because they had only within word cues on the list, but had additional cues in the flow of language in a story. Results bore this assumption out. Eighty-nine per cent of the first graders, 97% of the second graders, and 94% of the third graders were able to read in context more than one half of the words they missed on the lists. Of the children who were able to read in context more than four-fifths of the words missed on lists, 26% were first graders, 50% second graders and 67% third graders. Goodman believes that this indicates they were making increasingly efficient use of cue systems outside of words. An examination of total errors and substitution errors on the word lists showed an increasingly higher percentage of substitutions from first to third grade indicating that children in successive grades used within word cues (i.e., word attack skills) with increasing frequency, though not necessarily with increasing efficiency. The examination of substitutions also revealed a successively increasing number of one-time incorrect

substitutions in the story for words known on the list. Goodman suggest three possible causes for this: (1) overuse of within word cues to the exclusion of other cues, (2) miscuing by book language which differs from the language of children or (3) ineffective use of language cues.

Regressions were also examined. The author found that unless children corrected a word immediately on a list, they seldom went back. They frequently regressed in reading the story, however, and it was almost always to make a correction. The author believes that regressions are due to redundant cues in language and are not errors, but attempts to correct prior errors.

Implications for the reading teacher include: (1) introducing new words in context is preferable to introducing them in isolation, (2) prompting or correcting children as they read orally seems to be unnecessary and disturbs the self-correction process which language cues, (3) regressions in reading should not be eliminated because they are the means by which a child corrects himself, (4) "shotgun" teaching of phonics to whole classes or groups is a questionable practice since many children may be overusing cues within words and (5) the focus on words in teaching reading should be changed to a focus on language.

Goodman, Kenneth S. "Words and Morphemes in Reading," in Kenneth S. Goodman and James T. Fleming (Eds.), Psycholinguistics and the Teaching of Reading. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1969, 25-33.

Words, says Goodman, are units of written language; they do not really exist in speech apart from the language structure in which they occur. A sentence does not acquire meaning by

adding the meanings of its words together. Meaning is signified by a larger unit; a word is assigned a portion of that meaning, but the whole is more than a sum of its parts. What is more, the whole is not a combining of parts; rather, the part is differentiated out of the whole.

Goodman believes that the traditional belief among reading teachers that words are the units of spoken, as well as written, language has caused them to equate reading with merely attaching the oral equivalent to the written word. This has resulted in word callers because associations on higher language levels than words are necessary for comprehension. He makes several suggestions for getting away from the word orientation in teaching beginning reading.

Hillerich, Robert L. "Linguistic Efforts in Reading: An Appraisal," National Elementary Principal, 48, (September 1968, 36-43.

Hillerich reviews some of the basic linguistic principles which he assumes reading specialists, as well as linguists, would accept without argument.. He believes, however, that the linguists have sometimes violated these principles in the process of applying them. In this article, he cites some of these violations and discusses why he takes issue with the linguists. He disagrees with Fries' view that beginning reading is merely a "transfer stage" because it ignores the meaning aspect of reading. He points out that linguists have emphasized the importance of suprasegmental phonemes (i.e., pitch, stress, and juncture) in reading, then

have claimed that beginning reading should not be concerned with semantic context. Hillerich also disagrees with linguists who would teach letter names rather than consonant sounds at the onset of reading instruction, emphasize vowel sounds in early instruction, and ignore the differences between spoken and written language patterns. He concludes that reading teachers should take advantage of the knowledge of language that linguists have made available, but should use their judgment in applying these linguistic principles to reading instruction.

Horn, Thomas D. (Ed.) Reading for the Disadvantaged: Problems of Linguistically Different Learners. New York: Harcourt, Brace, and World, 1970, 267 pp.

This book, a project of the International Reading Association, is an interdisciplinary approach to understanding the problems of linguistically different learners. Its twenty-four contributors bring insights from the fields of sociology, psychology, linguistics, economics, and education to help explain some of the factors that can affect a child's success in learning to read. Horn says in his introduction that the book has two special aims: "...to direct attention to the crucial part that linguistic differences play in the state of being disadvantaged; and to highlight the need to meet the problems of linguistically different learners who, though not otherwise disadvantaged, are having serious language-based problems in reading."

The first part of the book focuses on the social and economic backgrounds of disadvantaged whites, blacks, American

Indians and Mexican-Americans. Factors in the lifestyles, languages, cultural patterns, value systems, and environments of these groups which may cause them to have problems in white, middle-class oriented classrooms are discussed.

The second part of the book deals with language. One chapter discusses the relationship between language and intellectual development, and describes learning theories that underlie a bilingual or bidialectal education program. Other chapters in this section describe the language characteristics of native whites, blacks, Spanish-speakers and American Indians.

The final part of Reading for the Disadvantaged reviews the implications of chapters in the first two parts of the book for instructional programs from nursery school through high school. The book is concluded with a bibliography which includes references for further reading on linguistically different learners and how to cope with their educational problems.

Ives, Sumner. "Some Notes on Meaning and Syntax," The Reading Teacher, 18, (December 1964), 179-183 and 222.

The author provides many examples to illustrate his point that comprehending the meaning of a text involves an understanding of the syntactical patterns of written English. He notes that bright children from literate families usually are familiar with these patterns already; therefore, teaching the phoneme-grapheme correspondence may be enough. In teaching children whose patterns of spoken English differ from those of written English, an integrated, cumulative language arts program is necessary to teach the grammatical structures with which they

are unfamiliar. Ives acknowledges the fact that a description of English syntax must be complicated if it is to be accurate and comprehensive, but points out that current instructional materials rely on the intuition of the native speaker, omit important parts of the system, or fail to relate the formal details of the grammatical system to meaning at vital points. He does not attempt to supply a comprehensive analysis of the English grammatical structure in this article, but does list some of the syntactical distinctions that teachers should recognize as possible sources of confusion for children having comprehension problems in reading.

Lefevre, Carl A. Linguistics and the Teaching of Reading. New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1964, 252 pp.

Lefevre believes that a misunderstanding of the relationships between spoken and printed language patterns is the most decisive element in reading failure. The purpose of this book is to explain these relationships to the reading teacher so that she can build on the child's existing knowledge of language during reading instruction.

The child is ready to read when he understands that the "...language he hears and speaks can be represented graphically in writing and print, and that the writing and print he sees can say something to him. He is already experienced in the basic signals and structures of his language--so much so, in fact, that he uses them without being aware of their existence. Lefevre believes that primary reading should begin with developing

the child's consciousness of these basic language signals and structures and relate them to the graphic system. The best method for achieving this, he says, is through "...practice in speaking and oral reading of familiar patterns, with emphasis upon the native intonations." He devotes an entire chapter to an explanation of intonation because he believes that it is an extremely important part of the reading process. Stress, pitch, and juncture (the components of intonation) signal various grammatical and syntactical structures in English. If the child does not learn to read with the intonation patterns he uses in speaking, he becomes a word caller, unable to "hear" and comprehend what he is reading. Lefevre is, therefore, emphatically against phonics and word methods of teaching reading because these methods begin with units that are too small to bear meaning and, therefore, cannot be read with the natural intonation patterns which characterize spoken language.

The child must be taught to read sentences from the onset of instruction because sentences are the basic meaning-bearing structures in English. He should be taught to recognize the four basic sentence patterns in print (he already has control of them in his speech) and then should be taught to recognize function order in these sentence patterns, the structure words that signal function order, and so on, progressing down through the structures that signal meaning until he reaches the level where traditional reading instruction frequently begins--the isolated word. Lefevre sums up his approach by saying it moves

from larger to smaller wholes. He assumes that with a little help children will learn to analyze the spelling-sound relationships of words on their own. Spelling should be taught inductively, and only as needed, until children understand the larger graphic patterns.

Marquardt, William F. "Language Interference in Reading," The Reading Teacher, 18 (December 1964), 214-218.

Marquardt believes that recent attention directed toward the grapheme-phoneme correspondence by linguists and others has resulted in the assumption that the only difference between reading and speaking is the difference in the codes used to convey the message. The author contends that this oversimplified view ignores many of the differences between oral language behavior and reading behavior. For instance, spoken prose has highly standardized intonation patterns, an eveness of tempo, little repetition, etc., while conversation has an uneven tempo, more repetition, use of gestures, is more structurally incomplete, etc.

The child brings with him to the learning to read situation a whole complex of oral language skills as well as many of the behavior patterns, values, and meanings of his culture that interact with language. Some of these well learned patterns can interfere with the child's learning of the different behavior patterns called for in reading because they are much more akin to those employed in conversation than those employed in reading. Marquardt suggests that linguists need to identify the linguistic forms,and their learning sequence, by which

the child can be led from his own oral language skills to the skills involved in speaking prose.

Ruddell, Robert B. "The Effect of Oral and Written Patterns of Language Structure on Reading Comprehension," The Reading Teacher, 18 (December 1964), 270-275.

Ruddell's purpose in this study was to investigate the effect of the similarity of oral and written patterns of language structure on reading comprehension of fourth grade children. Two hypotheses were investigated: (1) degree of comprehension is a function of the similarity of the written patterns of language structure to the oral patterns of language structure used by children and (2) comprehension scores on reading passages utilizing high frequency patterns of oral language structure would be higher than those on passages utilizing low frequency patterns.

One hundred and thirty-one randomly selected fourth grade children were given a close comprehension test on six reading passages. Three of these passages contained high frequency patterns and three contained low frequency patterns. Vocabulary difficulty and sentence length were controlled.

The comprehension scores on reading passages differing in similarity index values were significantly different beyond the .01 level. Comprehension scores on the material with high frequency patterns and on the material with low frequency patterns were significantly different beyond the .01 level. The author found a statistically significant correlation (.68) between the high and low frequency patterns of language structure

and scores on reading comprehension. Ruddell also found significant differences at the .01 level between comprehension scores when considered in relation to the occupational status of the father, educational background of parents, and the intelligence, mental age and chronological age of the subjects. Sex was the only background variable that did not relate to performance.

He concludes that his hypotheses were upheld and that the background variables of the subjects are significantly related to reading comprehension on reading materials that utilize high and low frequency patterns of oral language structure. He makes recommendations for further research studies in the area of oral and written patterns of language structure in reading comprehension.

Seymour, Dorothy. "What Do You Mean, 'Auditory Perception'?", The Elementary School Journal, 70 (January 1970), 175-179.

This article is a response to the linguists' charge that elementary school teachers waste valuable time and effort "teaching" children to "make sounds" and to "hear sounds" that they have been making and hearing successfully for several years when they enter school. Seymour answers that it is regrettable that teachers and textbook publishers continue to use the terms "teaching sounds" and "teaching auditory perception" when they are actually teaching the children to perceive language on a different level than the children are accustomed to. Thus, it is the terminology, not the practice, that is faulty.

The author believes that children must be made aware of the fact that language is a series of sounds that can be

symbolized. In order to teach this concept, children must be aware of what is meant by a "sound," of what is meant by "the first sound"or the "last sound," etc. and of what is entailed in considering a word as a group of sounds spoken in a particular sequence. Children's language is so much a part of them that they are not aware of the sounds in their speech. They think of words as lexical items, not in the more abstract terms of their phonemic contrasts.

For the above reasons, Seymour believes that "auditory perception" is an important part of reading instruction, and should not be discontinued because the terms used to describe it have been faulty and misleading. In order to clear up the misunderstandings about the nature of this type of instruction, she proposes substituting the terms "perception of language on a new level," "phonemic perception," "sound-symbol association," and "symbol-sound association" for the old terms "auditory perception," "auditory discrimination," "hearing sounds," "articulation," and "making sounds." The last section of Seymour's article contains an outline of a program to teach these skills in which the new terms are employed and explained.

Soffietti, James P. "Why Children Fail to Read: A Linguistic Analysis," Harvard Educational Review, 25 (Spring 1955), 63-83.

The first part of Soffietti's article explains some of the terms linguists employ in analyzing language such as "phoneme," "morpheme" and "utterance." The second part of the article deals with the problem of reading and writing. The

second part of the article deals with teaching reading and writing. Soffietti contrasts the traditionalists' idea of the reading process with the linguists'. The former tend to believe that "...the printed word acts as the trigger that releases a meaning we already possess," whereas the linguists believe that "...the printed word acts as the trigger that releases its oral counterpart, which, in its turn, releases a meaning we already possess." The linguists, therefore, believe that vocalization or sub-vocalization is never entirely eliminated in the reading process. The difficulty of the learning to read process will thus depend on how readily the learner perceives what sounds the written words are meant to represent. Because the English spelling pattern is so highly irregular, the beginning reader cannot depend upon the letter as a primary clue to vocalization. Indirect, secondary clues become of primary importance as do psychological and social factors of the reader which might his influence his visual-auditory perception of clues. What would ordinarily be considered insignificant individual differences, therefore, become important factors in reading instruction.

The third part of the article contains a brief explanation of how the author believes beginning reading should be taught in view of the linguists' observations of the reading process. Basically, he agrees with Bloomfield on the material to be used and its organization. He disagrees with Bloomfield, however, on the importance of writing in the learning to read process. Soffietti believes that writing should be an integral part of the learning to read process.

Wardhaugh, Ronald. "Linguistics-Reading Dialogue," The Reading Teacher, 21 (February 1968, 432-441.

Wardhaugh acknowledges the contribution that linguistics has made to reading while pointing out that reading researchers have been very limited in their application of linguistic theory to reading. This has occurred because reading specialists have considered only one aspect of linguistic thought--the view that language is speech and writing is a recodification of speech.

This focus has led to misconceptions and over-simplifications when applied to reading. Wardhaugh contends that writing is more than speech written down. Speech is characterized by pauses, repetitions, syntactic shifts, etc.; reading material is written in well-controlled sentences. Therefore, the performances of speech and writing are not easily related to each other. The reading researcher's narrow view of linguistics has also resulted in an overemphasis of phoneme-grapheme relationship. Many linguists no longer consider the phoneme a functional unit in studying language. Linguists such as Fries, Wardhaugh claims, have an oversimplified concept of the reading process--it is much more than acquiring high-speed recognition responses to various letter patterns.

The linguistic research that the reading establishment has looked at thus far has been concerned with describing English utterances rather than explaining the underlying elements of sentences and their relationships. According to Wardhaugh, Chomsky's syntactic theory, and Katz and Fodor's semantic theory have much to offer the reading specialist in explaining how

sentences are understood. It is in this direction that reading researchers must proceed if they are to understand the very complex process of reading.

Weber, Rose-Marie. "Some Reservations on the Significance of Dialect in the Acquisition of Reading," in J. Allen Figurel (Ed.), Reading Goals for the Disadvantaged. Newark, Delaware: International Reading Association, 1970, 124-131.

Weber does not believe that existing studies on the differences between spoken standard English and Negro nonstandard English constitute a rationale for the belief that these differences cause reading failure among nonstandard speaking children. She warns that we must not equate spoken standard English with written English, expecially in considering beginning reading texts. Because these texts contain such a small range of vocabulary and short sentences, Weber does not believe that they pose a significantly more alien form of language to the nonstandard speaker than they do to the standard English speaker. As far as sound-letter correspondence is concerned, she states that our spelling system is not specific to any particular dialect. In addition, she believes that it is unnecessary to accommodate sound-letter correspondence to the pronunciation of the child because the child is quite capable of making this accommodation himself.

She notes that the vocabularies of the two groups are very similar. The major differences in nonstandard and standard English occur in pronunciation and syntax. Because beginning readers are at an age when they are most flexible in language learning, Weber believes that nonstandard speaking children

will accommodate themselves easily to these differences. In summary, the author's reservations on the significance of dialect differences in learning to read stem from her belief that, "We are far from answering the question: how much can a written language differ from a spoken language before the task of language learning interferes with the task of learning to read."

Section B: Approaches and Materials

The items in this section focus, in one way or another, on the approaches and materials that have been used or proposed for use in teaching linguistically different children to read. Some items report on the effectiveness of various methods of teaching reading. Some focus on the importance of developing reading related skills for success in reading. Others take account of reading materials used with linguistically different children--they evaluate the effectiveness of various basal series, list appropriate supplementary reading materials, report on children's story preferences, etc. Still others offer suggestions for curriculum reform.

It seems unlikely that any one instructional approach or set of books will ever prove to be "the" successful way to teach reading to dialect speaking children. It seems undesirable, to this writer, at any rate, to even establish this as a goal for reading research as it implicitly denies the tremendous amount of diversity to be found among these children. It does seem likely, however, that a knowledge of some of the considerations underlying methods and materials which have been proposed for, or tried with, linguistically different children would help teachers in planning effective reading programs for various children in their classes. It is hoped that the items in this section will help serve that purpose.

Baratz, Joan C. and Roger W. Shuy (Eds.). Teaching Black Children to Read. Washington, D.C.: Center for Applied Linguistics, 1969, 219 pp.

This book contains articles by eight linguists who are concerned with the relationship between language and reading; more specifically, they are concerned with the nonstandard dialect many black children speak and its relationship to widespread reading failure among black children. The eight contributors are in agreement on several basic points: (1) they reject the deficit model and propose that the Black dialect is a regular, rule governed form of speech which is adequate for cogn tive development; (2) success in reading depends upon the extent to which the child's own language corresponds to the language used in reading instruction; (3) the major cause of reading failure among black children is lack of correspondence between the child's dialect and the standard dialect used in the schools; (4) the nonstandard dialect differs from standard English in pronunciation, grammar, and, to a lesser degree, vocabulary; and (5) teachers of nonstandard English speaking students must respect their students' dialect and familiarize themselves with its pronunciation and grammar.

The authors are not in agreement, however, on how to cope with the problem of teaching reading to these children. Basically, the disagreement centers around whether to retain present materials and adjust the teaching procedures or to revise the materials to accommodate the dialect. Goodman believes that standard English materials should be used for

teaching reading, but that students should be allowed to translate the text into their own dialect as they read. Baratz and Stewart argue that beginning tests must be written entirely in the child's dialect--a series of "transition readers" would be used later to gradually move the child into standard English texts.

Some of the other topics dealt with in Teaching Black Children to Read include orthography problems that arise in writing dialect materials, the problem of phoneme-grapheme relationships, interference problems that result from reading another dialect, and the nature of dialect differences.[1]

Bruininks, Robert H., William G. Lucker and Robert L. Gropper. "Psycholinguistic Abilities of Good and Poor Reading Disadvantaged First-Graders," The Elementary School Journal, 70 (April 1970), 378-385.

In reviewing the literature, the authors found that perceptual studies indicated that the disadvantaged lag behind middle-class children in auditory discrimination, and in auditory memory and sound blending. The studies did not indicate whether these deficits occurred in disadvantaged children in general or only in disadvantaged children who had learning problems in school. The authors' intent, in this study, was to determine whether disadvantaged poor readers would be significantly inferior to disadvantaged good readers in these skills. It was hypothesized that they would be.

[1] William Labov's article, "Some Sources of Reading Problems for Negro Speakers of Nonstandard English," from this book is summarized in the "Dialectology" section of Part I of this bibliography.

Forty-two children near the end of their first year of school were chosen for the study. Twenty-two had been taught to read with the initial teaching alphabet and 20 with a traditional orthography series. Half the readers in each group were good readers, the other half poor readers. Both groups were given the ITPA.

The differences in the psycholinguistic abilities between good and poor readers were not consistent across the two reading approaches. The poor readers in the ITA group were significantly inferior to good readers on all four subtests that required listening and oral expression ($p<.05$), but were not inferior on subtests requiring visual and motor communication. The poor readers in the traditional group were significantly inferior to the good readers in that group on only two subtests--one requiring visual reception and one requiring auditory reception ($p<.05$). Thus, the prediction that poor readers would be significantly inferior to good readers on psycholinguistic abilities was given only partial support.

It should be noted that there was greater disparity in the mean reading scores of good and poor readers in the ITA group. Thus, failure to find as many psycholinguistic deficits in the poor readers taught by traditional orthography could be related to the fact that they were less inferior than good readers in over-all reading performance. Another explanation could exist in the differences between the two reading methods. The ITA method, with its greater emphasis on sound-symbol correspondence,

may be more difficult for children who have auditory deficits as opposed to visual deficits.

The authors suggest, on the basis of their findings, that remediation exercises for poor readers focus on improving auditory reception and vocal expression in both the grammatical and the rote aspects of language. They also note the need for more research on the individual characteristics of children that interact with various approaches to reading instruction.

Carlton, Lessie and Robert H. Moore. "The Effects of Self-Directive Dramatization on Reading Achievement and Self-Concept of Culturally Disadvantaged Children," The Reading Teacher, 20.(November 1969), 125-130.

Carlton and Moore describe the results of their study which was designed to determine whether greater gains in reading achievement and favorable changes in self-concept could be brought about in culturally disadvantaged children through the use of self-directive dramatization. Terms they used in this study and their definitions are: (1) self-directive dramatization--refers to the pupil's "...original, imaginative, spontaneous interpretation of a character of his own choosing in a story which he selects and reads cooperatively with other pupils...", (2) self concept--"...what the child thinks he is, what he thinks he can do, and what he thinks he cannot do" and (3) self-directive dramatization period--consisted of three and one half months.

The experimental groups consisted of one first, one second, one third, and one fourth grade class in allow socio-economic area school with an 85% Negro population. The control students

came from other classes in the same school and from classes in another elementary school in the same system; each pupil in the control group was matched with one in the experimental group on the basis of grade, sex, intelligence score and reading grade score. The reading section of the Gray-Votaw-Rogers Achievement Test was used to measure reading achievement. A set of questions which identified negative behavior was checked for each child before and after each dramatization period to determine changes in self-concept (experimental group only).

After two dramatization periods, the second grade experimental group made an average reading gain of 1.87 which was .62 greater than the average gain of the control group ($p<.01$). The third grade, with an average gain of 1.18, made a .39 higher gain than the control group ($p<.02$). The fourth grade experimental group made a gain of .85 and the control group a gain of .43--the .42 difference in favor of the experimental group was significant at the .02 level. The first grade children were not tested in reading during the first semester. Their scores, therefore, reflect only the gains during one dramatization period. The first grade experimental group gained 1.13 in reading achievement to .24 for the control group. The .89 difference in favor of the experimental group was significant at the .01 level.

Changes in self-concept were measured by the decrease in the number of checks on each child's self-concept questions. Children in all grades showed a decrease which was interpreted to mean a gain in self-concept for the children.

The authors conclude that their results "...may well be a breakthrough in the effort to help disadvantaged children make more rapid progress in reading."

Collier, Marilyn. "An Evaluation of Multi-Ethnic Basal Readers," Elementary English, 44 (February 1967), 152-157.

The author examined 25 first-third grade basal reading books from four publishing companies (all books were published after 1960 and before May 1965) in order to determine whether the stories presented non-Caucasian characters without stereotypes and as equal with white characters. In order to evaluate the books, a list of 72 "yes or no" questions was prepared. The questions centered around ten categories such as race, neighborhood, family, occupations, etc.

Collier reports the books' treatment of characters under each category, but only some of the more important conclusions will be reported here. She found that each series presented Negroes of only one socio-economic class, whether it was lower class, middle-class suburban, or whatever, leading her to suggest that Negro children of more than one socio-economic class could not easily identify with the characters. None of the stories attempted to present problems which could occur because of race differences. There were few stories dealing with other ethnic groups than Negro. The stories seemed to present children in idealistic situations--they were well-behaved, always settled arguments verbally, etc. None of the families had only one parent or a step parent and only one portrayed an extended family.

In all of the series, there was respect shown to minority group characters by Caucasians.

Criscuolo, Nicholas P. "How Effective Are Basal Readers with Culturally Disadvantaged Children?" Elementary English, 45 (March 1968), 364-365.

This article reports the major findings of a study conducted to determine the effectiveness of basal readers with culturally disadvantaged children. Eighty-seven children from two schools were studied--one with a lower-middle class population and the other with a lower-lower class population. Sixty-four per cent of the children were Negro and 36% were Caucasian. In each school, one class used a basal reader and completed the skill development section and the enrichment activities, while another third grade class used the same basal series, completed the skill development section, but did not do the enrichment activities. The latter group (the acceleration approach group) covered two of the basal readers in the time saved by omitting the enrichment activities while the enrichment approach group covered only one. The study was conducted over a six-month period. Pre- and post-test scores were obtained using the Metropolitan Reading Test. The enrichment approach for both schools produced an average mean growth of 6.1 months on the two reading subtests, while the acceleration approach produced an average of 3.2 months.

On the basis of his findings, Criscuolo believes that use of the basal reader will produce satisfactory reading achievement if used a sufficient amount of time to allow for complete mastery of reading skills.

Davis, Allison. "Teaching Language and Reading to Disadvantaged Negro Children," Elementary English, 42 (November 1965), 791-797.

The author advocates shifting the emphasis from reading, per se, to language and cognitive development during the K-3 years. She believes that this will result in more rapid learning of vocabulary and syntax which, in turn, will provide the foundation for the successful mastery of reading later on. The K-3 program should emphasize activities that teach children to observe, classify, reason, and express themselves verbally. This is best accomplished by the use of pictures, objects, audio-visual aids, etc. that will give the child an opportunity to expand his vocabulary and learn cognitive skills as he engages in problem solving activities related to these stimuli. After the child has mastered a basic group of words and concepts, he is introduced to narrative through stories. The stories (which may be read to the child, dramatized, presented on records, etc.) are used to encourage the child to extend his vocabulary and increase the complexity of his thinking. When the child is ready to read, the author notes that teachers must exert an effort to select stories which will meet the interests of disadvantaged children--they are hard to find.

Donelson, Kenneth L. and Sharon Faggan. "A Selected Bibliography for Non-Middle Class Children, Grades 6-10," Elementary English, 44 (December 1967), 856-861.

The authors present a list of over 75 books with non-WASP and non-middle class heroes. Brief annotations are included. In their discussion, the authors warn teachers against using

the books for indiscriminate bibliotherapy or limiting classroom reading to these books alone, regardless of the ethnic or socio-economic background of the students. He also includes a list of several other sources that might prove helpful in supplying titles of non-middle class oriented books.

Edwards, Thomas J. "The Language-Experience Attack on Cultural Deprivation," The Reading Teacher, 18, 546-551 and 556.

Of all the problems encountered by the culturally deprived child, Edwards believes the following constitute the most serious handicaps in the development of communication skills and academic success: restricted background of experiences and concepts, cognitive stagnation, and oral language deficiency including problems with perceptual distortion, vocabulary, and syntax.

He believes the language-experience approach, used frequently with young children, but seldom with older ones, is a very effective method for dealing with these problems at any age level. It "...involves the teaching of an array of thinking and language skills in a discussion setting centering around a topic (preferably controversial) which is anchored directly in the experiences and interests of the group." The approach is very flexible allowing it to accommodate various age levels, teaching aids, resource materials, and classroom sizes.

The author suggests guidelines for implementing the language-experience approach which cover topics of discussion, the teacher's role, the sequence of instruction and follow-up activities.

Elkind, David and Jo Ann Deblinger. "Perceptual Training and Reading Achievement in Disadvantaged Children," Child Development, 40 (March 1969), 11-19.

The author's interest in Piaget's ideas concerning the decentralization of perception led them to devise this study in which they trained an experimental group with nonverbal perceptual exercises and a control with a commercial reading program in order to compare subsequent reading achievement. Both groups were comprised of second-grade inner-city Negro children and were submitted to training sessions of half an hour, three times a week for fifteen weeks. Twenty-nine subjects were in the control group and 25 were in the experimental group. The groups were matched for performance on tests of perceptual activity (the Picture Ambiguity Test [PAT] and the Picture Integration Test [PIT]) and reading achievement (Form W of the California Achievement Tests).

The nonverbal perceptual training consisted of solving anagrams, unscrambling words, making symbolic transformations, etc. The children learned the procedures by observing chalkboard examples--no verbal instructions were given and no verbal responses were allowed. The exercises were frequently in the from of games and competition was encouraged. The control group's training sessions consisted of a regular reading program from The Bank Street Readers--they completed one first and one second grade reader during the fifteen week session.

"T" tests run on the posttest scores showed that the experimental group did significantly better on the PIT than the control

group ($p<.05$). The experimental group also scored significantly higher on the word form and word recognition subtests of the California Achievement Test ($p<.05$). Differences between group scores on the PAT and the other subtests of the California Achievement Test did not reach significance but generally favored the experimental group.

The authors conclude that nonverbal training in perceptual activity had a greater effect upon the recognition of words and word form than did the usual type of reading instruction. They note that the training did not differentially effect reading comprehension, but point out that the exercises were not designed for that purpose.

Emans, Robert. "What Do Children in the Inner City Like to Read?", Elementary School Journal, 69 (December 1968), 119-122.

Emans randomly selected eleven girls and eleven boys in an inner city school who had not started a formal reading program to determine whether they preferred the stories in a multi-ethnic reader with a city theme or the stories in a multi-ethnic reader with a family-friends-pets theme. A story was chosen from the first grade readers of the basal series utilizing the city theme and paired with one from another basal series utilizing the family-friends-pets theme until there were six pairs of stories. A student teacher then read a pair of stories to a child individually and asked him to indicate which he would like to hear again. Using various student teachers, all story pairs were read to each of the 22 children, controlling

for order of presentation of stories and the influence of particular readers.

Of the 132 times the children were asked to indicate their preference, they chose the stories on the family-friends-pets theme 80 times and the city stories 52 times. Thus, the family, etc. theme stories were chosen significantly more often ($p<.005$). A replication study in another inner-city school using identical procedures (except that 14 boys, 10 girls and five graduate student readers took part in it) obtained similar results--family, etc. stories chosen 93 times to 51 times for the city stories ($p<.001$). Emans concludes that the family-friends-pets theme is more appealing to inner-city children, but notes that art work could have influenced preferences.

Feldman, Shirley C., Dorothy Schmidt and Cynthia Deutsch. "Effects of Auditory Training on Reading Skills of Retarded Readers," Perceptual and Motor Skills, 26, (1968, 467-480.

After reviewing the literature concerning the relationship of auditory and reading skills, the authors concluded that good readers possibly function on a higher developmental level perceptually than poor readers. They assumed that if this is true, then the use of a developmental auditory training program with socially disadvantaged poor readers should increase reading achievement. Their study was designed to test this assumption.

Subjects included 64 Negro and Puerto Rican third graders from five schools located in low socio-economic neighborhoods (because of mobility of families this number shrank to 57 then 47 and then 45 at the various posttesting sessions). Subjects

were assigned to one of four training groups: reading training alone, auditory training alone, successive reading and auditory training or control. Each group met with a tutor for 70 minute sessions three times weekly. Pre- and posttests included reading tests (Gates Primary Reading Test, Gates Oral Reading Test, Gates Sight Vocabulary Test and the Roswell-Chall Word Parts Test) and auditory tests (a battery of 11 tests, nine of which were designed or modified specifically for this study--they included sound recognition tests, word-pair discrimination tests, attention tests, and memory tests).

In attempting to ascertain the effects of time, tutor, treatment and/or ethnicity on the test scores, the authors used analysis of covariance. No treatment group's scores were superior to any other group's. The combined effects of time and tutor significantly influenced only one variable, the Phoneme Test ($p<.10$). There were significant treatment by tutor effects for four of the reading scores and six of the auditory scores ($p<.10$). The combined effects of treatment and ethnicity were also investigated. The authors found that the Puerto Rican children who received only auditory training performed significantly better on the reading tests than did the Negro children who received only auditory training ($p<.01$), but the Negro children who received only reading instruction performed significantly better than the Puerto Rican children who received only reading instruction ($p<.01$). The authors suggest that Puerto-Rican children were learning English as a second language and,

therefore, benefitted from the auditory training, while the Negro children may have been confused by the auditory training because the sounds they learned were similar to, but still different from, those in their own dialect.

The authors conclude that little evidence was obtained to support the hypothesis that a developmental auditory skills program would increase reading achievement. Although interaction effects were revealed among tutor, time, ethnic group and treatment variables, none of the treatments alone was effective in increasing reading scores. They discuss the timing of intervention programs and suggest that third grade children may be past the optimal age for having a basic skill, such as auditory discrimination, generalize automatically to reading skill.

Ford, Robin C. and J.Koplyay. "Children's Story Preferences," The Reading Teacher, 22 (December 1968), 233-237.

The authors attempted to determine the story preferences of 169 suburban upper-middle class children and 204 urban Negro lower-class children from grades K-3 by the use of a nonverbal test. The nonverbal test was used so children could not be influenced by other children's repsonses or teacher reactions.

Ten pictures in each of six categories (children in general, children in inner-city and ghetto areas, Negro heritage, history and science, animals, and fantasy) were entered in a booklet in random order and presented to each child.

The child was told to circle the picture (four were on a page) he liked best and "x" the picture he liked least on each page. Several sentences portraying the action in each picture were also randomly mixed and read to the second and third grade children who were asked to circle and "x" the sentences in the same way they did the pictures.

The percentage of "times most liked" given pictures in each category ranged as follows: Negro heritage, 79%; ghetto children, 65%; history and science, 59%; children in general, 46%; fantasy, 35%; and animals, 22%. The chi-square value of 36.70 with 6 degrees of freedom is statistically significant at the .01 level. A breakdown of categories represented by the ten pictures most liked showed that five of the ten best liked belonged in the history-science category. Of the ten most disliked, four related to fantasy and four to animals.

Second and third graders' responses to the sentences showed that Negro heritage was most frequently chosen as liked and fantasy was most frequently chosen as disliked.

In their discussion, the authors point out that these results are contrary to those of earlier studies (Witty, et. al., 1946; Norwell, 1958) which found that middle grade children preferred animal stories, humor, and fantasy. They suggest that television may be instrumental in bringing about these changes. They also warn that the small number of pictures and sentences used, coupled with a large number of uncontrolled variables, may have influenced the results.

Hanson, Earl and Alan H. Robinson. "Reading Readiness and Achievement of Primary Grade Children of Different Socio-economic Strata," The Reading Teacher, 21 (October 1967), 52-56 and 79.

The authors compared the performance of Negro disadvantaged children; average, middle-class children; and advantaged children from K-3 on the Goodenough Draw-A-Man Scale, Metropolitan Readiness Tests, and Metropolitan Achievement Tests. Sample sizes in each subgroup were small, ranging from 13 in the average second grade group to 43 in the average K group. Differences in intelligence, reading readiness, and reading achievement test scores among the subjects of different socio-economic strata at the different grade levels were compared by analysis of variance using .05 as an acceptable level of confidence.

Advantaged kindergarteners scored significantly higher than the average, and the average scored significantly higher than the disadvantaged on the Metropolitan Readiness Tests. The advantaged K group also scored significantly higher than the disadvantaged group on the Goodenough Draw-A-Man Scale. No significant differences were found in the performance of boys and girls at the K level.

The first grade advantaged group scored significantly above the disadvantaged on all tests and significantly higher than the average on the Draw-A-Man Scale and the Met. Readiness Tests. Average subjects outperformed the disadvantaged on the Met. Readiness Test and two sections of the Met. Achievement Tests. Once again, no significant differences were found in the

performance of girls and boys.

Advantaged second graders scored significantly higher than the disadvantaged on the Draw-A-Man Scale and the Met. Achievement Tests. The scores of advantaged subjects on sections one and three of the Metropolitan Achievement Test were also significantly above those of the average subjects. Average subjects scored significantly higher on the Draw-A-Man Scale than the disadvantaged. Girls' scores were significantly higher than boys' on the Met. Achievement Test.

Advantaged third graders, once again, scored significantly higher than the disadvantaged on the Draw-A-Man Scale and the Met. Achievement Test. Advantaged subjects' scores were also significantly higher than the average subjects' scores on the Met. Achievement Test. The average group scored significantly higher than both other groups on the Draw-A-Man Scale at this level. The average group also scored significantly higher than the disadvantaged on section one of the Met. Achievement Test. No significant sex differences were found in scores at the third grade level.

The authors conclude that the advantaged outscored the disadvantaged on all tests at each grade level--they entered the primary grades more ready to read and increased the difference at each grade level. Differences between the advantaged and average subjects were smaller and less uniform, but the advantaged group appeared to be more ready to begin reading instruction, and were ahead in reading achievement in the

second and third grade.

Differences were less pronounced between the average and disadvantaged subjects, but the average group seemed to be more advanced in word discrimination at the first grade level and in word knowledge at the first and third grade levels.

Harris, Albert J. and Morrison Coleman. "The CRAFT Project: A Final Report," The Reading Teacher, 22 (January 1969), 335-340.

This article reports the results of the CRAFT (Comparing Reading Approaches in First Grade Teaching with Disadvantaged Children) project in which Negro children were taught to read by two basic approaches, Skills-Centered and Language-Experience. The Skills-Centered Approach was broken down into two methods--a Basal Reader Method and a Phonovisual Method. The Language-Experience Approach was divided into an Audio-Visual Method and a regular Language-Experience Method. Over 1000 children participated through the first grade, 656 through the second grade, and 1128 were located in the third grade follow-up. In a replication study, 680 children participated through the first year and 402 through the second. Some of the more important findings were as follows:

(1) The differences between mean reading scores within each method were greater than those between approaches and methods.

(2) Kindergarten children had consistently higher scores than non-kindergarten children on the first grade pretests and on all sets of posttests; differences tended to increase through the third grade.

(3) Children identified by their teachers as being early readers at the beginning of first grade surpassed the total population on the pretests and on all sets of posttests. They

scored well above grade norms on all reading tests by the end of third grade.

(4) Pupil attitude toward reading was essentially similar in all methods after the first year.

(5) Girls tended to have slightly higher means on some readiness tests and boys on others. Achievement differences in favor of girls tended to increase during the second and third grades, and were substantial by the end of third grade.

(6) Third grade scores were higher after the CRAFT project was undertaken than they were in the same schools before the CRAFT project.

As a result of these and other findings, the authors make the following recommendations:

(1) The teacher seemed to be far more important than the method. Therefore, in-service workshops and expert consultative help should be provided for all teachers.

(2) The authors recommend that efforts be made to try to determine which combinations of instructional components are most suitable for use with the disadvantaged, rather than continuing to compare components of instructional approaches.

(3) Kindergarten programs should include sequentially planned activities for the development of readiness.

(4) It should be determined whether a continued involvement of teachers in the experimental use of new materials and methods will continue to bring about positive reading results.

(5) Research should be done to determine why a significant relationship between teacher satisfaction with a method and her results with it was obtained.

(6) Research should be done to determine the most efficacious ways of instructing disadvantaged boys.

Hollingsworth, Paul M. "Can Training in Listening Improve Reading?" The Reading Teacher, 18 (November 1964), 121-123 and 127.

This article is a review of 16 studies done between 1940 and 1962 that dealt with the interrelationship between listening

and reading, and with listening and its effects on reading. Hollingsworth concludes that they show that reading ability can be improved by improving listening ability.

Holmes, Jack A. and Ivan Rose. "Disadvantaged Children and the Effectiveness of i.t.a.," The Reading Teacher, 22(January 1969), 350-356.

The authors report on an experiment in which 486 disadvantaged first graders were taught to read by i.t.a. and 542 by a traditional orthography (t.o.). Many of these disadvantaged students were Mexican-Americans. The two groups were matched for IQ and reading readiness.

At the end of the year, 37% of the i.t.a. pupils were reading above grade level compared to seven percent of the t.o. group. Fourteen per cent of the i.t.a. and 19% of the t.o. pupils, however, were reading at pre-primer level or below. Differences in the mean scores of the two groups on the Stanford Achievement Test favor the i.t.a. group ($p<.01$); however, data corrections based on the pre-test scores had not been done.

The authors conclude that the children who were ready to read made faster progress in i.t.a. than in t.o. The relatively large number of children reading below grade level, however, indicates that no method is beneficial for children who lack readiness skills. The authors point out that of the 28% of Mexican-American children reading above grade level in the i.t.a. group, only two per cent were Spanish speaking compared to 20% who were English speaking.

The last part of the article is devoted to a discussion of

what can be done to prepare educationally disadvantaged children for reading. They believe that the most serious inadequacies of disadvantaged children are in the area of language development, and recommend activities to develop language ability, visual and auditory perception and reasoning skills.

Keener, Beverly M. "Individualized Reading and the Disadvantaged," The Reading Teacher, 20 (February 1967), 410-412.

The author believes that the advantages of an individualized approach to reading lend themselves particularly well to teaching the disadvantaged. The self-selection principle allows the child to choose stories featuring minority groups, an urban environment, or other themes that may tend to make the stories more interesting to him than those in a basal reader. Student written materials can also be added to the classroom reading collection.

The self-pacing aspect of an individualized reading program eliminates the "being in the low group" stigma. A sense of importance and worth can also be given to the child as the teacher observes and praises each degree of progress he makes, and as the child participates in projects to share his book, e.g., art projects, dramatization, etc.

Keener devotes a section of this article to suggestions concerning classroom organization and reading related activities to be used in the individualized reading program.

Ornstein, Allan C. "101 Books for Teaching the Disadvantaged," Journal of Reading, 10 (May 1967), 546-551.

This list was designed to help teachers locate supplementary

reading books for the urban disadvantaged Puerto Rican or Negro student. According to the author, the books "...reflect the role and contributions of the Negro and Puerto Rican in our culture, they enhance the essential dignity and integrity of minorities, they provide appreciation and understanding of minorities, and they promote brotherhood." Each book is designated for either junior-high school students (books range from fifth to ninth grade reading level) or high-school students (books start from eighth grade level). Some books should, therefore, be appropriate for upper elementary students reading at or above grade level. The books are listed under the following categories: The Past Re-examined; Current Literature Which Reflects Our National Challenge; Music and Art; Poetry, Theatre and Literature; The Sports World; and Fiction and Short Stories. Prices of books are given.

Packer, Athol B. "Ashton-Warner's Key Vocabulary for the Disadvantaged," The Reading Teacher, 23, (March 1970), 559-564.

In the Ashton-Warner approach to beginning reading, the child is asked to tell the teacher what words he would like to learn that day. The teacher prints the word (or words or phrases) on cards for the child who then traces them with his finger, copies them and reads them. When the child has developed a sight vocabulary of around 40 words he is encouraged to write stories using his words. He continues to build his sight vocabulary in this manner. Thus, it is basically a language-experience approach to reading. (For a complete description of this approach

see Ashton-Warner, Sylvia. Teacher. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1963.)

Packer compared the vocabulary requested by disadvantaged children in four cities (Philadelphia, Pa.; Jonesboro, Ark.; Yakima, Wash;; and Jacksonville, Fla.) to the vocabulary presented in the preprimers and primers of the four basal reading series used in those cities in order to determine whether there was a significant difference. Racial composition varied in the classrooms under study in the four cities, but the majority of children were black, with other ethnic groups represented in some cities.

Words requested by the children (i.e., "key vocabulary") and those presented in the basal were divided into 14 categories, e.g., person's names, fear, sex, locomotion, animals, etc. The percentage of words in each category was computed from the total words requested in each city and then compared to the percentage of words in each category computed from the basal used in that city. Percentages for each city were placed in rank order and the Spearman R correlation coefficient was obtained between the key and basal for each city. The only positive correlation significant at the one per cent level between the key words and basal words was found in Jacksonville. Key vocabularies from the four cities were also correlated. There was a significant correlation at the one per cent level between the Philadelphia and Jonesboro words and between the Jonesboro and Yakima words; but generally, the data suggested that the words asked for in various cities were different.

The author concludes that the words children request to learn and those presented in the popular basal readers are significantly different. She believes that the requested words are more meaningful to them, and thus, it may be easier for some children to learn to read by the Ashton-Warner approach.

Platt, Penny. "Teaching Beginning Reading to Disadvantaged Children from Pictures Children Draw," in J. Allen Figurel (Ed.), Reading Goals for the Disadvantaged. Newark: Delaware: International Reading Association, 1970, 84-90.

The author, an art teacher in the Washington, D.C. school system began an experimental reading program after becoming puzzled by the reading failure of many lower grade ghetto children. She had observed that their drawings exhibited the skills usually considered necessary for success in reading (e.g., ability to organize thought in a logical and orderly manner) and were as skillfully and easily executed as those by children in middle-class schools.

She, and reading teachers who participated began by writing the words for the objects portrayed in each child's picture directly on the picture as closely as possible to the objects. Children immediately began requesting more words and copying the words already written on their pictures. She then handmade 50 primers using only the initial sight vocabulary from the children's pictures for the preprimer. Gradually, additional vocabulary derived from the Dolch list was introduced (with preference given to rhyming words) until by the end of Book Three, 230 words had been introduced. The children's

illustrations were used in these primers. After completion of these primers, the children were started in the first reader of a basal program.

Platt reports that the children who began this experiment in September of 1968 were successfully reading in the first basal reader by March of 1969. No standardized tests were administered, but she reports that children performed successfully on teacher designed tests. No information is given on the number of subjects in the experiment, readiness test scores, reading achievement test scores, etc.

The author claims that her method has provided a successful beginning-to-read experience for the children, and cites the following reasons for this success: (1) readiness time was minimized by utilizing the child's own experiences as a basis for reading, (2) the learning to read task was made easier because the child knew in advance the concepts he would read about, (3) the author's preprimer eliminated possible confusion between words in the text and the objects in the pictures, and (4) an easy transition from drawing to writing to reading was provided.

Roberts, Hermese E. "Don't Teach Them to Read," Elementary English, 47 (May 1970), 638-640.

The author is strongly opposed to delaying reading for NSE speaking children until they acquire a working knowledge of standard English. She recommends an earlier inception of the reading program which would include beginning reading readiness

activities as soon as possible (preferably at the preschool level) and beginning reading instruction as soon as the child is ready. She outlines the following approach to teaching reading.

(1) Identify the concepts from the black culture that have crucial relevance to language and reading and utilize them (and the accompanying vocabulary) to provide the student's initial decoding experiences and, then, gradually bring him into formal reading. Parents and community members can assume a large role in this aspect of the program.

(2) Use a child's experiences, stated in his language, as reading material.

(3) The approach to teaching reading should be language oriented--listening, speaking, reading and writing should be related in all school activities.

(4) Make him aware of other social dialects to develop through books, T.V., role-playing activities, etc.

(5) Encourage him to write his "books" and stories in standard English so that children who speak this dialect can read them.

The author believes that this approach builds on a well-established language foundation--that of the child's own culture. It also preserves the child's self-concept, introduces him in a natural way to other dialects, elicits parent and community participation, and avoids the feeling of failure that would result from preventing the child from learning to read while teaching him another dialect.

Rosen, Carl L. "Poverty Children and Reading Curriculum Reform: A Broad Perspective, "Educational Technology, 10 (May 1970) 38-45.

The aim of this article is, in the author's words, to "...review the traditional in education, analyze the present,

and offer some considerations for future educational curriculum reforms...". The traditional approach to educating poverty children has demanded that the children conform to the white, middle-class school system with its prescribed curriculum, behavior norms, and rigid schedules. When the behavior, customs, attitudes, language, beliefs, and habits of poverty children do not fit into this mold, the children are often disciplined harshly and written off as unable to learn. No attempt is made to adjust the school to the child, and teachers or administrators who would try are usually censored by the educational establishment.

There is a discussion of the "Great Society" years when unprecedented amounts of money were poured into programs for the education of poverty children. The author discusses several of the reasons for the failure of these programs to live up to their grandiose designs, but the most basic seem to be a lack of understanding of the depth and nature of the problems involved and an atheoretical, poorly-planned approach to solving them.

Having argued that massively increased federal funding alone did not, and will not, establish equal opportunity for poverty children, the author gives his considerations for curriculum reform that will help bring about better education for them. He contends that the deficiency-deprivation model has been used to explain failure too long, and that the impact of cultural differences has, until recently, been ignored. He advocates conducting studies to explore the effectiveness

of teaching reading in the child's native language or dialect, and providing an atmosphere in the schools that will allow and respect cultural differences.

The educational establishment must be reformed in order to allow minority groups to make decisions concerning the education of their children. Schools must come to value creativity, spontaneity, and the normal behavior of children over conformity and regimentation.

Teachers must be rigorously trained to work with culturally different children. They must know and understand the children's culture and language. Their training in the teaching of reading must reflect the fact that reading is not a separate discipline but rather a language experience. Their methods must emphasize problem solving rather than rote learning and must focus on the child and his development before books, equipment, etc. Educational research must also be redirected in order to help solve the problems of poverty children. More attention must be given to developing theoretical models of reading and understanding the reading process itself. The differences in minority children must be identified and the possibilities of changing the schools to accommodate the differences must be explored.

Rystrom, Richard. "Dialect Training and Reading: A Further Look," Reading Research Quarterly, 5 (Summer, 1970), 581-599.

Rystrom's study is a replication of an earlier study conducted in California which found no relationship between dialect and reading achievement. Three hypotheses were tested in the

present study: (1) Negro children can be taught to use features of white speech which do not occur in their native dialect, (2) knowledge of this additional dimension of dialect will have a positive and significant influence on word reading scores, and (3) the use of phoneme-grapheme controlled readers will have a positive and significant influence on word reading scores.

The subjects were first grade students in an all-Negro school in rural Georgia. Four classes, each of which had 30 students, participated in the semester long study. The four classes formed the following groups: (E1)--received dialect training and used a traditional basal reader; (E2)--received dialect training and used a linguistic basal reader; (E3)--received no dialect training and used a linguistic basal reader; and (C)--received no dialect training and used a traditional basal reader, thus constituting a control group. The dialect training groups received drills designed to teach the third person marker, terminal consonants, and terminal clusters 20 minutes per day for the 80 days in the second semester. During this period the other two groups were taught language skills, but received no dialect training. Teacher effect was controlled by realigning teachers and students for certain phases of instruction. The instruments used for both pre- and posttests were The Rystrom Dialect Test (1969) and the Gates Word Reading Test (1962). Reading sections of the Stanford Achievement Test (1964) were administered as posttests

to provide an index of general reading ability. Analysis of covariance was used to evaluate the test results.

Posttest results on the Rystrom Dialect Test showed no significant differences between groups on dialect performance. When the test results were analyzed according to which text was used (basal or linguistic), there were no significant differences between groups except on the Paragraph Meaning subtest of the SAT which favored the basal group ($p<.01$). Results on the Gates Word Reading Test showed that the two groups that received no dialect training performed significantly better than the two groups that received dialect training ($p<.01$). Rystrom therefore rejected all three hypotheses.

He also failed to find significant interaction between particular teachers and the experimental treatment they conducted, except for the decoding performance of the control group (as measured by the Gates test).

He concludes that dialect training does not significantly increase the reading achievement scores of Negro nonstandard dialect speakers, and may cause confusion in learning phoneme-grapheme correspondence.

A response to this article was written by Kenneth S. Goodman ("Dialect Rejection and Reading: A Response," Reading Research Quarterly 5 , pp.600-603) who claims that Rystrom did not demonstrate the extent to which dialect interferes with the reading process, as he intended to do. Instead, says Goodman, he assumed that teaching black

children a few features of standard English would improve their reading achievement. He charges that Rystrom did not use effective approaches to teaching either standard English or reading, and consequently, merely confused his subjects.

Venezky, Richard L. "Nonstandard Language and Reading," Elementary English, 40 (1970), 334-342.

Venezky's article deals with approaches and materials in teaching reading to children in two situations; one in which there is a language difference and the other in which there is a dialect difference. In discussing teaching reading in a situation where there is a language difference, he compares the native literacy approach with the standard approach. The native literacy approach is based on the assumption that one should first learn to read in the native language, then (or simultaneously) learn to speak the national language, and finally learn to read the national language. The standard approach is based on intensive oral language instruction in the foreign language prior to the teaching of reading.

Venezky draws his conclusion that the native literacy approach has not been proven scholastically superior to the standard approach from the results of several studies which he briefly summarizes. Because the native literacy program has not resulted in superior reading achievement, Venezky believes that the tremendous expenditures necessary to develop the materials, train the teachers, and design the testing procedures cannot be justified.

The standard approach, on the other hand, has the advantage of teaching a second language at an age when most children most readily learn new languages. Theoretically, at least, the use of established teaching techniques and materials constitute another advantage.

The teaching of reading to dialect speakers also poses problems in selecting approaches and materials. The materials could be handled in three ways: (1) they could be written in the dialect of the child, (2) the present standard language materials could be used after teaching standard English, and (3) standard English materials could be modified in content and vocabulary to reflect the environment of the child. Venezky dismisses the first alternative as having few merits and many liabilities, e.g., doesn't lend itself to integrated classrooms, too much time and expense involved in teacher training and preparation of materials, opposition of parents and teachers, etc. He believes the second alternative is more practical than the first, but not completely satisfactory. The basic objections are the necessity of knowing the culture as well as the language of standard speakers in order to make reading a familiar experience and the problems posed by an integrated classroom.

The third alternative, which he considers the best, could be implemented in a "Common Core Approach." The reading materials could be based on a school subject such as science or civics, thereby minimizing dialect and culture differences.

He does not believe that syntactic forms in many nonstandard English dialects would be different enough to cause a significant reading problem. An important factor in the success of this approach would be allowing the child to translate from standard English to his own dialect.

Whalen, Thomas E. "A Comparison of Language Factors in Primary Readers," The Reading Teacher, 23 (March 1970), 565-570.

The purpose of Whalen's study was to determine whether the first year readers in the Bank Street Basal Reading Series (often used with culturally disadvantaged children) were as difficult to read as the first year readers in another basal program, the Harper and Row Basic Reading Program. The first pre-primer, second pre-primer, primer, and first reader from each series were compared on the bases of number of irregular word occurrences, number of different words, average sentence length, and average word length. Chi-square tests were performed for different words and irregular words, and two-tailed t-tests were made for average sentence and average word length. ($p<.001$ or $p<.01$).

Results showed that the first and second pre-primers in the Bank Street series were significantly more difficult on all variables except number of different words in the first pre-primer. At the primer and first reader level, differences were not as severe though the Bank Street books continued to use more words and longer word length.

The author concludes that the Bank Street Series is more

difficult to read (especially at the pre-primer level), and therefore, questions its use with culturally disadvantaged children who may have language disabilities and thus need a series which features fewer words, more repetition, and fewer irregular words. He notes the need for more research in order to determine whether other variables, not included in this study, outweigh the linguistic evidence against using this series with the disadvantaged.

Williams, Charles, Alden S. Gilmore and Leslie F. Malpass. "Programmed Instruction for Culturally Deprived Slow Learning Children," The Journal of Special Education, 2 (Summer-Fall 1968), 421-428.

The purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of programmed instruction (PI) in supplementing regular classroom reading instruction for disadvantaged, slow learning students. The second grade subjects had to have a tested IQ between 76 and 90, be at least six months retarded in school achievement, and come from a home and neighborhood classified as "marginal in economic circumstances" to be included in the study. The 45 subjects (25 boys and 20 girls) were divided into three groups and received the following treatment: Group M--received PI from a teaching machine; Group W received the same program content as Group M, but used a programmed textbook; and Group C--exposed only to the regular classroom routine, received no added instruction of any type. Group C did not serve as a control group but rather to provide a basis for determining how much learning could be attributable solely

to classroom enrollment. The programmed instruction featured a presentation of 93 words found in most basic reading series. Instruction was conducted over a one month period.

Results are reported in terms of average number of words gained from pretests to posttests. The authors report that calculation of t-ratios between each group demonstrated no significant differences between the two PI groups in word gains on any of the measuring instruments, but large and significant differences between both of these groups and the classroom group--the t-ratios are not reported in this article. The two tests based on the PI words did show large differences in the average number of words gained between the experimental and classroom groups (e.g., on the list of 93 programmed words, Group M gained 30.7; Group W, 33.1; and Group C, 4.5), but the Gates Primary Reading Test showed very small gains (Group M gained 3.2 words; Group W, 2.1 and Group C, 1.4). A follow up test on the PI words given 30 days after the initial posttest revealed that 90% of the words acquired by Groups M and W were retained.

The authors note that the teaching machine was much more appealing to the students than the programmed workbooks, but the two groups made similar progress. They conclude that PI is an effective supplement to the reading program for slow learning disadvantaged students.

Wolfram, Walt. "Sociolinguistic Alternatives in Teaching Reading to Nonstandard Speakers," Reading Research Quarterly, 6 (Fall 1970), 9-33.

Wolfram summarizes the various positions represented by linguists working on the problem of what materials and methods should be used in teaching reading to dialect speaking children. The positions discussed can generally be categorized under one of these two strategies: (1) retain present materials and adjust the teaching procedures or (2) revise the materials to accommodate the learner's dialect. The author considers both linguistic and socio-cultural factors in his comments on the positions which can be summarized as follows.

A. Retain extent materials

1. Teach standard English prior to teaching reading--Bereiter and Engelmann are advocates of this approach.

2. Dialect reading of extent materials--Goodman, the most explicit spokesman for this position, states, "...no special materials need to be constructed, but children must be permitted...to read the way they speak.

B. Revise Materials

1. Neutralization of dialect differences in texts--eliminate linguistic features of text that are not an integral part of the NSE speaker's linguistic system; Shuy is an advocate of this method.

2. Dialect readers written in the NSE dialect--Baratz has been the most outspoken advocate of this position.

Wolfram's discussion highlights the following two problems: some of the alternatives seem to handle the dialect problem more effectively in terms of linguistic differences but run into implementation problems due to socio-cultural or psychological factors, while the other alternatives can be implemented without problems but may not adequately deal with linguistic

differences. He concludes that teachers should allow students to read the materials used at present in their own dialect until experimentation with dialect readers determines the feasability of their implementation.

Wood, Mildred H. "An Analysis of Beginning Reading Programs for the Disadvantaged," Viewpoints (Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University), 46.(May 1970), 149-188.

Wood reviews research reports which have focused on teaching disadvantaged children to read. She summarizes the more important findings from these studies and discusses their implications for educators. She notes that many research projects have dwelt on descriptions of the social and cultural characteristics of disadvantaged children rather than on descriptions of their educational characteristics and needs. This, she believes, is an unfruitful approach to the problem, and leads to the mistaken idea that disadvantaged children are a homogeneous group. Research dealing with the learning problems of the disadvantaged has demonstrated that there is no single pattern of disabilities; thus, indicating the need to match instruction to the child.

Readiness studies have revealed that children vary tremendously in readiness abilities, and therefore, need varying amounts of time to develop the skills thought necessary for success in reading. Wood cites a number of studies that have indicated that nursery, kindergarten, and primary programs need to be structured around the teaching of specific skills, but educators have been reluctant to structure early education programs for fear of robbing children of their childhood.

Wood also reviews studies of beginning reading programs and notes that relatively few have been successful, but among the successful ones Hawkridge and Tallmadge (1968) found several common characteristics: (1) A one-to-one relationship between teacher and pupil, (2) involvement of parents, (3) in-service education for teachers, (4) delimited aims, (5) stated goals and (6) measured outcomes. She comments that the majority of the studies were designed to find one reading method for all disadvantaged children rather than to find the effective method for each child. Initial as well as on-going diagnosis is necessary if the right method is to be found for each child--she discusses studies concerning the ITPA's usefulness as a diagnostic tool and as a means of matching a reading method to the child's needs. The bibliography of 52 entries should prove helpful to the teacher who is interested in locating research articles dealing with teaching the disadvantaged.

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